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CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 179

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

Re-Staging 1904 182
A Disappointing Congress 182
Political Verbomania 183
Gen. Booth and His Army 184
A Scientist on Social Tendencies 185
Modern Literary Rewards 185

SPECIAL ARTICLES:

French Book Notes 186
News for Bibliophiles 188

CORRESPONDENCE:

Dr. Furness 188
Professional Motives 189
Lecky on the Demagogue 189
A Profanation 189
The Function and the Machinery of Government 189

LITERATURE:

In Forbidden China 190
The Goodly Fellowship 191
The Forest on the Hill 191
The Adjustment 191
The Citadel 192
Egyptian Hieratic Texts 192
English Apprenticeship and Child Labour: A History 193

NOTES 193

SCIENCE 196

MUSIC:

Critical and Historical Essays 197

ART 198

FINANCE:

Evidences of Better Times 199

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 200

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The Week

In explaining his final decision to sign the Panama Canal bill, we think that President Taft would have done better if he had been franker. That is, he might have said more unmistakably that he strongly objected to some of its provisions, but that he wanted the other parts so intensely that he was, in order to get them, willing to put aside his scruples and even to abandon the position which he had publicly taken—namely, that the tolls, under the treaty, "must be the same to all." He desires very much to be able to appoint a Governor of the Canal Zone, and otherwise to set up the administrative machinery. It also seemed highly important to him that the shipping world should thus early be notified of the maximum charges. These are, of course, good arguments for passing a bill at this session of Congress, but they do not weigh as a feather against the possible violation of a treaty. To avert that, we could well afford to wait till next December—or for December of 1920—even at the cost of a certain sacrifice due to delay.

On this main point, we are sorry to say, the President holds the view, if not the language, of the most swashbuckling Congressman. He declares that we bought the canal territory and built the canal at our own expense, and that it is preposterous to suppose that we have not the right to deal with its administration as a "purely domestic" matter. Doubtless we should have that right, if we had not signed it away. But that is what we did in the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. In order to induce Great Britain to relinquish her right to joint control of the canal, we agreed to surrender our right to do in all respects as we pleased with our own. Now we take back what we gave up. It is this breach of faith which Great Britain will undoubtedly ask us to submit to the Hague Tribunal, but then we may expect President Taft to retreat from his high position respecting universal arbitration, and to insist, with the Senate, that such a "domestic" question cannot be arbi-

trated! First having signed a treaty, and then agreed to another one binding us especially to arbitrate disputes arising out of interpretations of treaties, we coolly propose to break two treaties at once by saying that even interpretation is a domestic matter. What the world will think of this, the comments of the foreign press are already making plain.

Mr. Roosevelt's diffident announcement prior to the first Chicago Convention that he was the only Progressive who could win, takes on a ghastly hue in the light of the formation of the Wilson National Progressive Republican League by such men as Rudolph Spreckels of California and John J. Blaine of Wisconsin. These men have been supporters of La Follette, and would therefore presumably prefer to vote for a Republican over a Democrat. Yet they turn from the self-proclaimed leader of the progressive element of their own party to Wilson. Their action, of course, is only a formal expression of the attitude of the thousands of Republicans who have been writing to the Democratic candidate to pledge him their support, and of those other thousands who, without having so written, intend to cast their ballots for him in November. Its significance lies in what it discloses as to the accuracy of Roosevelt's claim that he will draw the progressive vote from both parties, leaving to his opponents only the thick and thin partisans. It is evident that unless he does this, he is doomed at the start. But here is a formidable organization within his own former party to disprove the claim.

Again we have an explanation of the policy of the Progressive party towards the negro. The Colonel writes in the *Outlook* that the Democratic attitude towards the colored population has been one of "brutality," the Republican one of "hypocrisy," while only his own is filled at once with courage and humanity. From this one could only infer that it is brave and humane to submit to brutality—for that, on his own showing, is exactly what Mr. Roosevelt has done in barring negroes from his new party in the South. He is setting out as the great champion of the oppressed

—but he rules out those of the oppressed whose skins are black.

Last week's *Independent* powerfully argues that the negroes are "the worst oppressed" of all our population. Nothing that corporations or Trusts do to any class of their employees can be compared with the wrongs daily put upon colored men. Political and civil injustice is worse than wages unduly low or prices made artificially high. Says the *Independent*:

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But the Colonel has a ready answer to all this. If he were to assent to it, he could not hope to get many votes in the Southern States, and what could be more "inhumane" than that?

Considerable significance attaches to the labor demonstration to be held in St. Patrick's Cathedral of New York next Sunday evening. The invitation to attend is given not only to religious organizations, but to labor unions and to workingmen not identified with any association, and the list of laymen who are in sympathy with the aims of the meeting is representative. This is supposed to mark the beginning of an organized fight of the Catholic Church against Socialism in its relation to the workingman. For a year past a "school of social study" has been in operation, having for its object the training of Catholic men to lecture on Socialism, and it is said that Cardinal Farley projects a college of labor, wherein workingmen shall receive instruction concerning labor causes. The problem of Socialism in this country has not reached the acute stage attained in Europe, nor is it likely to do so. But it is understandable that the Catholic Church, with the example of the Latin countries of Europe in mind, should view with apprehension the spread among workingmen

of socialistic doctrines. In France, and even more so in Italy, Socialism has taken an anti-religious and an anti-Catholic tone. So much is this the case that in Italy the Vatican is a good deal more often the object of attack from Socialistic quarters than is the Quirinal. The Anglo-Saxon mind, on the other hand, does not necessarily find in the principles of Socialism anything irreconcilable with religion, and in England, as in this country, are to be found a number of clergymen who are avowed Socialists. But it is also a political danger which the Catholic Church recognizes, and in averting which its influence ought to be powerful.

There is an element of picturesqueness which appeals to the imagination in the death of James Wood Rogers in the jungles of central Africa. Granted that the man was a rascal; that he callously deserted his wife; that he lived for years in open defiance of the law; yet there was a romantic quality about his life and death for which one cannot altogether withhold a grudging admiration. There must have been fine traits in the man's character, or he could not have made himself a virtual king among native tribes in a region where few, if any, white men had ever penetrated. He lived by illicit trading in ivory, in defiance of the British Government, and, if report speaks true, made considerable sums of money out of his transactions. Finally his depredations grew so extensive that an expedition was sent out to hunt him down, the orders being that the force of soldiers was not to return till Rogers was taken, dead or alive. Months later the expedition returned, bringing with it the dead body of the outlaw.

To speak of a man like Rogers as a criminal hardly expresses his connotation; he seems to have been one of a class of men whose instincts are lawless rather than criminal, who are fretted by the restraints which life in a community imposes. Had Rogers lived in the spacious times of Robin Hood, he would doubtless have found an outlet for his activities and talents that was regarded, except by the King's officers, as almost a legitimate profession, and he might have won immortality along with Friar Tuck and the rest of the merry band. It was his misfortune to

be born too late, in days when the arm of the law is long indeed, and outraged society can penetrate even into the dark forests of Africa to exact its vengeance.

The victory of the Californians, McLoughlin and Bundy, in the contest for the national tennis championship in doubles, with McLoughlin triumphant also in singles, is one more blow at the Old Guard, a parallel in the world of sport to the readjustment that has taken place in the sphere of politics. So distant is East from West in the minds of many New Englanders and New Yorkers that it is much easier for them to contemplate the winning of the amateur golf championship by an Englishman than it was a year or two ago, at least, to imagine the triumph of players from the Middle West or the Pacific Slope of their own country. In sport, as in many other things, the West looks to the East, and the East, if it deigns to look anywhere else, looks across the water. The victory of the California tennis partners has in this way a moral importance that outweighs its more obvious significance.

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not yet altogether clear, it all at once became the vogue to attribute everything literary to Indiana. Between these two thunderings in our literary sky, the still small voice of Michigan has been lost.

It is a very pretty little tempest in a teacup that has been brewed out of Mr. Hammerstein's decision to abandon grand opera in London. He, naturally a little piqued, berates the English public for not being musical and for not appreciating the enterprise which prompted him to offer them an alternative to Covent Garden. The English press retorts that it doesn't particularly mind being called unmusical, but the fact remains that Mr. Hammerstein failed to give the public what it had a right to expect—"the pearls cast before the Cockney swine were rather faded gems." It certainly seems a pity that Mr. Hammerstein should have dragged international traits into the question, and declared roundly that "nothing pleases the London public better than abuse of Americans." Our own recollection of the tone of the English press when Mr. Hammerstein began giving opera in London is that it was distinctly cordial, though none too sanguine of his success. The fact of the matter seems to be that the impresario entered on his scheme without making a sufficiently careful estimate of his public—he rushed in where other angels (in the theatrical sense) had feared to tread.

In the London *Times* its special representative at the games in Stockholm discusses Olympics at Berlin in 1916. Assuming that the British Empire will enter as a unit, he analyzes the figures of this year's competition and points out in what directions lies Britain's best chance of improving her record. The scores at Stockholm ran: Sweden 133 points, the United States 129, the British Empire (taken as a whole) 118. The Empire's best showing was in swimming, rowing, and lawn tennis, and in these events this year's scoring is unlikely to be bettered. So far as the track events are concerned, the *Times* correspondent does not expect any marked improvement in 1916, except that a few additional points may be picked up in the short distances—in the long distances his opinion is that the Empire

did almost better than could have been expected. For possible improvement, then, there remain the field events, in which the British showing of 4 points out of a total of 96 was "deplorable," and the shooting, riding, and yachting. He recommends that attention be devoted to the field events, but relies principally upon the three last-mentioned sports to make up the deficiency in points.

A London dispatch should do something to counteract the painful impression about the situation in China created by recent alarmist telegrams. Dr. George Ernest Morrison, who was recently appointed special adviser to the President of China, is at present in England, and has written to the papers a forcible protest against the "wild and irresponsible sensationalism" which is published in the English press regarding conditions in China. He warmly supports President Yuan Shi-Kai and declares the suggestion that he is aiming at a dictatorship totally unfounded. The execution of Generals Chang and Feng he regards as entirely justified by the circumstances, as there is not a shadow of doubt that they were plotting against the Government, and attempting to sow dissension in the army. The rivalry among the three factions in the Assembly which has been reported as threatening the existence of the Republic, Dr. Morrison states, has no more significance than the political divisions which are common to all countries. It may be argued, of course, that by reason of Dr. Morrison's official position, his point of view is necessarily an *ex parte* one, but his standing and reputation are such as to put him above the charge of special pleading, and the later reports from China direct tend to confirm the opinions which he has expressed.

In its "Notes from Paris" the London *Truth* gives what its correspondent asserts to be "the truth at last" about the mysterious disappearance of Mona Lisa from the Louvre. We shall never see the famous painting again, he assures us, because it was not stolen, but destroyed. He "learns" that it perished in the Louvre, a vengeful employee, smarting at dismissal, having poured sulphuric acid over the picture. This act of vandalism was committed a year

or more before the reported theft of Gioconda. The custodians, it seemed, hoped that the original could be restored, and hung a copy in the galleries. But when it was certain that the acid had done its work too fatally, burning the varnish and destroying the colors, and when experts began to whisper their doubts about the substitute, it was decided to let the painting be "stolen." The police were allowed to work on that theory, although high officials from the first perceived its improbability. This was thought to be kinder to the public than frankly to admit that Mona Lisa was gone forever, while to let out the true story would have reflected even more severely than the report of the theft of the masterpiece upon the laxness of the Louvre staff. The Paris correspondent of *Truth* is kind enough to point out that some parts of his revelation cannot be vouched for with "the same certainty" as others; but it is obviously a very pretty unveiling of the truth, as it stands.

Rumors of peace negotiations between Italy and Turkey persist, and despite official and semi-official contradictions, it seems more than probable that a measure of credence may be attached to them. The recent "conversations" in Switzerland, we are informed, were entirely unauthorized; but so were some of the conversations that preceded the settlement of the Russo-Japanese war. The best argument for peace is that neither side has anything to gain by prolonging the struggle. War is a costly luxury, and, although Italy has for some time enjoyed a period of great prosperity, the conduct of the campaign in the interior of Tripoli is a serious drain upon her resources. Turkey has even more cogent arguments than her rival for desiring peace. Unable to reinforce her troops in Tripoli, the best she can accomplish there is to carry on a desultory guerrilla campaign. Her domestic situation is such as to cause the greatest anxiety, while the ever-smouldering Balkans have again burst forth into a flame that it may need intervention from the Powers to quench. In the struggle Turkey has acquitted herself better than was expected, and the best that she can hope for now is a settlement that she may honorably accept.

Of all the problems which the British have to face in governing India, none is more difficult or more complicated than that of education. It is gratifying to find that the Indian Government is at last attacking the question in the right way, beginning at the bottom with primary education and not, as heretofore, neglecting that and devoting most of its attention to higher education. In the House of Commons, the other day, Mr. Montagu, Under-Secretary of State for India, outlined the scheme of reform which has been inaugurated. The total number of primary schools will ultimately be increased by 90,000, or 75 per cent., which will double the school-going population. The average expenditure on each primary school is to be doubled, and the salaries of teachers, at present miserably insufficient, are to be increased. In University education extensive reforms are contemplated in the way of developing residential universities, as opposed to the old system under which universities were little more than examination boards, and played no part in the formation of character. Such a university is shortly to be established at Dacca and others are projected at Benares and Rangoon.

Those persons who so persistently try to have it appear that Germany menaces our influence and the Monroe Doctrine in South America assert that Germany needs more land in order to take care of the hordes of Germans who are compelled to emigrate in order to live. Recent figures show that this argument is just about as fallacious as most jingo utterances. Thus it appears that in 1910 the total emigration of Germans was only 25,531, as against 120,089 in 1891. Of these 25,531 wanderers of 1910, 22,773 came to the United States, while less than three thousand Germans sought new homes elsewhere. Certainly there is nothing in this to make the German Emperor at all anxious; indeed, he might scornfully point to the thousands of American farmers who are crossing over into Canada, as the beam in our own eye. Moreover, it is plain that the Germans who go elsewhere than to the United States move again in large numbers. In no other way can the German authorities account for the fact that our American officials reported 71,380 arrivals of German-born citizens in 1910.

RE-STAGING 1904.

Presidential campaigns cannot be again fought eight years after they were decided. The water has flowed over the dam. But we certainly can now understand the events of the election of 1904 much better than we could at the time. Many of its secrets have since come to light; perhaps more will follow. What some guessed at then, to-day everybody knows. The whole affair wears a very different aspect now from what it had at the time. Suppose we could re-stage the Presidential drama of 1904 as we now know it to have been actually performed? New characters would figure in the scene. The audience of eight years ago saw them dimly flitting near the wings; now they would be in the centre of the stage. Wholly new motives, too, would appear in the plot, whose dénouement would be very different from that of the play as first given. And who can say that the curtain would now fall to the applause of 1904? At all events, the "revival" of the melodrama, "The Hero and the Octopus," ought to be undertaken if only for the sake of bringing it up to date and making it more realistic.

In order to appreciate the matter justly, let us seek to place ourselves back in the autumn of 1904. Judge Parker had been made the Democratic candidate, supposedly in the conservative interest. He was freely called the nominee of Wall Street. As such Bryan had attacked him; as such the Rooseveltian press assailed him. It was the friend of Belmont and the Trusts, the ally of big corporations, against the man who had broken up the Northern Securities Company, had forced the anthracite magnates to agree to arbitrate with the miners, and who in general was the champion of the masses. Roosevelt, it was said, could hope for no campaign contributions from Wall Street. All the big corporation purses were to be drawn upon for Parker. So ran the first act of the drama.

But suddenly the scene shifted. The candidate who was reputed to be in a way to receive the money from the Trusts, came out in a public speech and asserted that the other man was the real beneficiary. This declaration was several times made by Judge Parker towards the end of the campaign. He specifically affirmed that the Standard Oil Company was contributing to Mr.

Roosevelt's campaign fund. We all remember what followed. President Roosevelt issued his sweeping denial and violent arraignment of Judge Parker. The latter rejoined, but was able to produce no proof; and there is no doubt that the fact of his having made the charge, with failure to substantiate it in detail, injured his campaign, while greatly helping Roosevelt's.

But imagine that we were to reconstruct the theatrical piece with the new material at present in our possession. What would have been the effect at the time if Judge Parker had, in reply to Roosevelt's vehement giving him the lie, produced the Harriman letters? That it would have been most damaging to Roosevelt, we have the highest authority for saying—namely, Mr. Roosevelt himself. For in his blast against Mr. Bryan in 1908, he innocently admitted that it would have been ground for calumnious suspicion of himself, four years previously, if the fact of Mr. Harriman's contribution of \$260,000 had been made public. At that time, Mr. Roosevelt was arguing against publicity of campaign funds before elections. That is now, according to him, eternally right, but then he thought it eternally wrong. In illustration, he adduced the harm that would have been done him in supposing that he could be bought with Harriman's money. But that is sufficient to show how serious a blow would have been the knowledge that Harriman was helping finance his campaign. Another thing which the public did not know was that the insurance companies were being bled to aid Roosevelt. Fancy the sensation if Judge Parker could have given even a hint of the testimony which Mr. Hughes extracted from George Perkins a year later! And if he had been able, in addition, to tell only a part of what Mr. Archbold swore to on Friday, about the relations of Standard Oil officials to Mr. Roosevelt's Treasurer, the country would have listened aghast. All these things with which we are familiar now would have seemed incredible then.

It is important not to lose sight of the real significance of the subsequent revelations. They do not prove that Roosevelt sold himself, or that, in return for campaign contributions, he made any promises of Government favors to corporations. Undoubtedly, the men who gave the money thought that

they were making a friend in a high place. They always spoke afterwards of Roosevelt's course as one of betrayal. He took their money and then cut their throats. But that is too brutal a view of the infinite finesse with which that most adroit of political managers played his part. He was undoubtedly afraid that the big business of the country would favor Judge Parker's election. And he set about reassuring the heads and managers of large corporations, with the result of finally, in one way and another, detaching them from Parker and winning them to himself. That he did this by baldly corrupt means, is not to be supposed. He had his go-betweens. He knew how to have suggestions made where they would do the most good—suggestions that were not promises. But the point is that he succeeded in doing secretly what he would not have even attempted openly. It was true, as Judge Parker alleged, that the Trusts gave money to Roosevelt's campaign fund. But there is no evidence, and no probability, that he gave any pledges in return. The misery of the transaction was that it was done under cover, that it was apparently denied with great heat by Roosevelt at the time, and that now the facts are leaping to light greatly to his discomfort.

A DISAPPOINTING CONGRESS.

The general verdict on this session of Congress will be that it was unusually prolonged without good reason and to no public advantage. No great act of constructive legislation held it to its midsummer labors; while all the routine work which it actually got through might easily have been wound up months ago. Indeed, it was perfectly clear in February or March that nothing of importance would be done during the session except to pass the appropriation bills, and they could have been whipped into shape and put through both Houses by the first of June. But it was not to be. There had to be time to "play politics"; and that amusement has been the chief occupation of Congress for two months past.

This was perhaps inevitable in a Presidential year which from the beginning promised to be confused and critical almost beyond example. Congress could not bring itself to disperse until the campaign was well going. An addition-

al reason for dilatoriness lay in the fact of party differences between House and Senate, and in the lack of a good understanding with either on the part of the President. We have often had an Executive at odds with Congress, but never, so far as we can recall, just the peculiar sort of cross-purposes which have marked the relations of Mr. Taft to the present Congress. It should seem that might have got on better with the Senate Democratic as well as the House. For though the Senate is nominally Republican, there is no firm party control in it, and it has failed, on many occasions, to stand by the President. It has even seemed that the Senate was, at times, as eager as the House to "put the President in a hole." In fact, ever since Mr. Taft's first year in the Presidency, when insurgency appeared in the Senate, he has not been able to count upon loyal support in either branch of Congress. Such antagonisms have existed before in our political history, but they seem to have extended to exceptionally petty matters during this session of Congress. We believe that no President ever vetoed so many appropriation bills as has Mr. Taft. This fact testifies to the absence of friendly and conciliatory relations between the White House and the Capitol, even in matters of necessary legislation.

The great disappointment of the session, however, is the complete failure to give the people the slightest relief from tariff taxes. In no respect was the state of logger-heads in matters legislative at Washington more unfortunate in its results. If there was one thing upon which the country could be said to have agreed, it was that unnecessarily high protective duties should be cut down. All parties and every political leader professed a desire to do this. In a very real sense it seemed possible to say: "We are all tariff-reformers now." Yet every attempt to carry out the pledges so freely made to the people fell between two stools. It is needless to go over the mournful story. What the President desired, he could not get; and what the House and Senate gave him, he would not take. It was plain that there was, on either side, a play for political position, and that this bedevilled all. The net result, we are convinced, is to leave the strategical advantage with the Democrats. Their campaign means nothing if not resolute purpose

to do away with tariff iniquities, and they can now argue with redoubled force that the only way in which the work can be done is to put them completely in power. Gov. Wilson's prompt approval of the Wool bill which the House passed over the President's veto—though it could not get the requisite two-thirds in the Senate—showed his just sense of the situation. Whatever Mr. Taft's motives in refusing to sign the bills reducing the rates on clothing and iron and steel manufactures, he certainly appears to have placed a new weapon in the hands of his political opponents.

In the matter of bringing forward new leaders, or heightening the reputation of those already recognized as such, the session was not notable. In the Senate, to be sure, some admirable speeches were made. Both Senators Root and Burton added to their repute for ability by the part they took in the debate on the Panama Canal bill. Their addresses were of the sort that should have changed votes, even if they did not. They also displayed a high-minded independence of position, and a jealousy for the national honor that are beyond praise. In the House, Mr. Underwood held, if he did not much enlarge, the fame which he has acquired as a calm and sagacious leader who possesses in a remarkable degree the confidence and esteem of his party followers. His closing tariff speech, with its imitation of Sydney Smith's famous characterization of taxes pursuing the citizen from his cradle to the grave, was of a pungency that ought to make its circulation during the campaign highly effective.

It cannot be said that President Taft emerges from the session with enhanced prestige. The difficulty is not simply that he had endlessly recurring differences with Congress. Some of them were perhaps unavoidable; but in them all he bore himself with a certain awkwardness. Where he was in the wrong, he had not the adroitness to make his cause appear the better; and even where he was right, he had no facility in evoking popular support. His friends will say that all this is merely fresh proof of what they have always admitted—namely, that he is "a very poor politician." But it is also another evidence that he has no instinct for reading the signs of the times, or for discharging

the high duties of his office in a way to arouse enthusiasm for inspiring leadership.

POLITICAL VERBOMANIACS.

Again it is to a Frenchman that we owe an acute study of a prevalent weakness in our modern public life. A recent book by M. Ossip-Lourié deserves to be ranked with Gustave Le Bon's writings on the psychology of the crowd. He calls it "*Le Langage et la Verbomanie*," and of it the main thesis is that we are producing in our political affairs a constantly increasing number of men with an excessive development of the faculty of speech. This is so abnormal that it almost requires to be called morbid. The verbomaniac is one whose principal effort is, not to make speeches, but to refrain from making them. He feels the obsession upon him, and often fights it, but in vain. Sooner or later the floods of talk will burst forth in spite of him. A leading French Deputy once explained the impulse to our author as a "physical necessity." He had no desire to speak, no real reason for speaking; but the words rose to his lips and he could not keep them back. Of such are the verbomaniacs; and M. Ossip-Lourié observes that "the individuals which contemporary society brings to the front are generally verbomaniacs."

We have long been familiar with the type in private life. It is there recognized as a mild form of insanity. Alienists have studied it, and novelists have found material in it. Mr. Beecher had such a character in one of his sketches of New England village life—a woman whose incessant and incoherent talk used to torment her pastor. He once asked her to try to keep still for five minutes, but at the end of two she snatched off his wig and threw it into the fire. Obviously she was under the "physical necessity" to speak. Dickens knew and recorded the species. But the particular merit of our French observer is that he shows the existence of the weakness in public men, and points out its ravages.

Some of his analyses and distinctions may seem to apply to certain figures on our own public stage. He remarks, for example, that it is characteristic of the political verbomaniac to seize upon ideas which are not his own. For him to overflow in endless speech it is not

necessary first to have spent any time in reflection. Any notions that are abroad, especially any words and phrases that are current, are enough for him. He pounces upon them with avidity and makes the heavens re-echo his shouting of them. Usually, to be sure, he misunderstands what he has taken from others. He repeats what he has heard or read with the greatest volubility, but he nearly always betrays some inconsistency, or some flat contradiction, going to show, not merely that he has not thought himself, but that he has failed to grasp the thought which he has appropriated. It is another fixed habit of the political verbomaniac, according to our author, to make the most violent and sweeping assertions, and to affirm fact and fancy with entire failure to perceive where one leaves off and the other begins. Moreover, he is frequently a powerful controversialist, for he can never be silenced, keeps on asseverating what has clearly been proved to be false, and by the very impudence of his shifts and dodges, and the torrent of his words, succeeds in imposing himself upon the unthinking masses, and is often able to seem to get the better, in the popular judgment, of an opponent who really has all the facts and all the logic on his side.

It has not escaped our French student that one effect of all this is steadily to degrade public oratory. M. Lourié has as poor an opinion as Carlyle of the popular orator, but for other reasons. The Scotchman's dislike of the "People's William," and fluent speakers of that ilk, was based on his belief that they did not and could not tell the truth, but simply dealt out flattery to their hearers. The Frenchman goes closer to the psychology of the matter. The political verbomaniacs are self-deceived. They are carried away by the sound of their own voices. The mere repetition of words and catch-phrases finally cuts such grooves in their brains that they abandon all thought of reasoning and simply pour out the old language as a kind of "stunt." In time, their very hearers cease to look to them for ideas or arguments, and simply flock to them as to performers. It is consideration of this fact which leads M. Lourié to think that political oratory is certain to decline—to decline, that is, as a means of influencing the progress of ideas or leading men to un-

dertake serious political action. Not that the political verbomaniacs will cease to have their vast audiences. As the crowd pays less and less attention to what they say, it will flock denser than ever to the spectacle and excitement which their very manner of saying it offers. Our Frenchman's prediction is that the evolution of political verbomania will at last have this result:

In the future the art of oratory will take refuge in the circus—its proper place. People will go to hear a celebrated orator as they go to see a clown, a juggler, a phenomenon, and they will allow themselves to be lulled and soothed by rhythms which appeal deliciously to the ear but say nothing to the understanding. They will go to hear one who charms crowds by his speech as they go to see one who charms snakes by his gaze.

This, we will merely remark, might be cut out and pasted in the hats of timid gentlemen who attach tremendous significance to the crowds that throng to hear our leading political verbomaniacs.

GEN. BOOTH AND HIS ARMY.

Thirty years ago representatives of every official religious organization in England were rivalling one another in sneering condemnation of the methods of the self-styled "General" and his Salvation Army, with its trumpets and tambourines, its mock uniforms, its threatenings of hellfire, and its blasphemous familiarity with the Deity. Now, when the man whose restless energy called this vast organization into being enjoys respite from his labors, there will scarcely be found a religious body to withhold tribute of praise to the memory of a great man who dedicated his life to the service of Christianity.

The revulsion of public sentiment with regard to the aims and methods of the Salvation Army is the justification of William Booth's work. No man of his time has been more bitterly attacked, or with greater weight and authority, and there are many things in connection with the Salvation Army of which it is difficult even now to approve. But the deeds of any man are to be judged by results, and, even if we take the work of the Salvation Army only in its social aspects, ignoring its religious aspirations, the verdict must be given in its favor. That is a view which General Booth himself would have been quick to resent, for first and fore-

most he was a religious enthusiast. But he possessed the rare combination of the zeal of a fanatic and the executive ability of a shrewd man of affairs. The saving of souls he conceived to be his business in life, and to that purpose he applied business methods. He had a genius for advertisement, and was the first to use modern methods of publicity for the advancement of a religious cause. Such methods may have been vulgar, and, even after their triumphant vindication, the more sensitive may still deplore them, but there is no doubt that they did the work and reached the people whom they were intended to attract—the waifs of the street, the frequenters of the saloon and the dance hall, the criminal and the fallen—with a success that could have been attained by no other means. Just as John Wesley aroused the official church from its apathetic indifference to the religious needs of his generation, so did General Booth show religious bodies how it was possible to penetrate into the by-ways and dark alleys of modern life.

From the very beginning the Salvation Army vigorously attacked the vice question, and refuges for unfortunates, in which they might regain self-respect and be taught the means of self-support, have always been an important feature of its work. It was General Booth, too, who was instrumental in getting up a memorial, which was successfully presented to the House of Commons, to have the age of consent advanced to sixteen years. Another important branch of the Salvation Army is its work in colonization. There are farms in this country, and one at Hadleigh, in England, which grew out of the scheme outlined in the General's book, "Darkest England and the Way Out." One of his latest enterprises, exhibiting at once the originality of his ideas and the practical expression he was able to give to them, was the establishment of "Suicide Bureaus," which intending suicides were invited to enter in order to discuss their plight dispassionately with the captain in charge.

While paying generous tribute to the memory of a great man, it is not unbecoming to inquire whether he will survive the supreme test of greatness, whether the work which he did in his lifetime will remain afterwards a solid and enduring monument to his memory. The sealed envelope in which the

General appointed his successor has been opened, and, as was expected, names his son Bramwell. But the document indicates no change in the administration of the vast sums of money which the Army has at its command. It is on just this question that the most telling criticism has been levelled at the Commander-in-Chief, notably by a man of such influence as Professor Huxley. No one, at any rate in late years, questioned the honesty of the General (his own living expenses were meagre in the extreme), but just criticism was aroused by the autocratic principle on which his administration of the funds of the Army was based. Funds subscribed by the public should be accounted for to the public. That is the only logical basis on which an organization like the Salvation Army can be founded. But General Booth willed otherwise. The great machine which he had constructed was controlled by himself alone; his power was absolute; his word in all matters relating to the organization of the Army was law. The question is: Will this autocratic and irresponsible government be continued?

A SCIENTIST ON SOCIAL TENDENCIES.

The sneering at college professors as men from whom nothing practical is to be expected, dies out so slowly in this country that, as we have recently seen, Mr. Taft's campaign manager thought it justifiable to have a fling at Gov. Wilson as "Professor Wilson." The best cure for this narrow-mindedness would be a residence abroad, in Germany particularly, to see how men in political life there covet the opinions and advice of the men whom we deride as closet-philosophers. Nor is it exclusively to professors of government and history, sociology and economics, that foreigners look. From scientists as well do they seek to acquire knowledge as to current events, for they have learned that the search for causes to explain natural phenomena, and the mental strength which comes by daily application to difficult intellectual tasks, may fit a man to deal with current problems. The very fact that the scientist stands aloof from the crowd gives him a detached point of view in itself of great value. Hence such an address as that recently given in Berlin by Sir Clifford Allbutt, regius professor of physic in the University of

Cambridge, attracts wide attention both in his own country and abroad.

He addressed the Congress of the Royal Institute of Public Health on the "Integration of the Social Organism"—a title serious enough to be alarming. But the address itself challenges admiration not only for its wisdom and sanity, but also for its charming style, its wealth of quotation and of illustration, and its deep underlying knowledge of human beings and their world. Few of our American statesmen, we are sure, could equal it in grasp and calmness. It is the deliberate judgment of one who speaks with unfettered tongue, without fear of the voter and the ballot. Why should a physician and a teacher discuss the trying social problems, or the unrest which vexes the whole world? Because, he says, "ethical, medical, and social influences interpenetrate each other," so that "one can hardly discuss any one of them without involving the others." Lord Acton, Sir Clifford quotes as saying that "ideas are not the effects but the causes of public events," and that revolutions explode not on particulars, but on "general abstract ideas." If, as it now seems, our revolutions are coming in the domain of economics, the physician has a particular reason for being heard, because "half of these" economic changes "must be more or less directly medical; they must be founded upon the ideas of public health and the means of its maintenance."

But this physician and professor stubbornly refuses to be sensational or to indulge in wild generalizations. Not even the new science of eugenics sweeps him off his feet. This new science, proclaimed so loudly as the cure-all for every ill of the species, Sir Clifford pictures as really "an infant needing the very nursing which we want for the slum babies." The knowledge of heredity, "with its secret and mazy laws," is too slight to be of much use to us practically. Let us not, therefore, he advises, maim further the stunted bodies of those who are defective for "plain and open lack of nurture, education, and family love." The very questions of insanity, of the wisdom of persons uniting in marriage in whose family cases of insanity have occurred, make this scientist more than anything else feel his "ignorance and ineffectiveness," for some of the happiest marriages he has

known were entered into with gravest anxiety because of family taint.

But no such scruples trouble legislators or our most ardent apostles of social reform. By them the world must be made over in a day. They can have no patience with this spirit of inquiry, of careful progress based on knowledge. Why, this good professor actually doubts the value of the minimum wage; for—shades of the Progressives!—he asks whether it is not one of those "explosive, reactionary ideas," "ideas without knowledge," which have rendered many revolutions futile. Yet his desire for social justice is keen, too. He appeals for the children—though he questions whether the diminution of births is the "terrible misfortune we almost passionately suppose it to be." He desires better homes and better schools—to bring up children to be good fathers and mothers, to give them teachers of higher and more humane standards, to provide them with more of out-of-doors life and a closer knowledge of nature.

But throughout it all there is no note of bitterness nor intolerance, no wild radicalism or heady Socialism, no reliance on noisy appeals to the people. He who defines the *scientia vita civilis* as the storing of the most energy by a social body "most economically, and the using of it the most fully and effectually and to the highest ends," could hardly believe that the triumph of any rash appeals to passion would really bring nearer the solution of the problems of poverty, of underpayment, of overcrowding, of inefficient government, of inadequate schooling. As to these, Sir Clifford quotes Emerson to the effect that "We are as yet but at the morning star and the cock crowing." Though we are often compelled to act in politics beyond our knowledge, yet this is another reason to urge on the mission of true and calm enlightenment.

MODERN LITERARY REWARDS.

The refusal of James Whitcomb Riley to own the soft impeachment that his poetry had brought him untold wealth must be regarded as an encouragement to poets rather than what it might at first thought seem, a dashing of their spirits. The mere fact that such a report could gain currency is most significant, for how often, since Caedmon discovered that he could sing and was promptly assigned to singing as

his life task at the stipend of three simple meals and a hard bed, has a poet been raised to a place beside merchants and bankers in the popular catalogue of material success? Shakespeare's financial attainments must be counted out, for he was a theatrical manager as well as a poet, and plays, even in verse, hardly come under the head of poetry. The other exceptions are so rare as merely to prove the rule. It must, therefore, be admitted that our Hoosier bard has been the recipient of an almost unique distinction in being credited with a fortune made in the service of the muses. His disavowal of the fact should only stir up keener rivalry for the glory of being the first millionaire poet in the history of the world.

But if our poets are not yet able to display a scale of expenditure comparable to that of our baseball stars, it by no means follows that the writer of a book in these spacious times is without his rewards. Publishers take delight in flooding newspaper and magazine offices with information of the movements of those who supply them with the raw material for books. It is impossible to read many of these bulletins without forming the conviction that any writer who does not possess an automobile and go abroad every year for several months of leisurely travelling from one capital to another, is too rare to consider. When we compare this happy state with that of Goldsmith, immured in a garret until Dr. Johnson happened to hear about it and rescued him by the summary process of forcing "The Vicar of Wakefield" down the throat of the nearest publisher, we can but rejoice at the good fortune of literary genius in our brighter day. We would not give the impression, however, that money is looked upon as a reward by our writers. It is only a necessity. What they, in common with their brethren of all ages, really value is fame. And this they have in abundance. The praise that the hard-hearted publisher is so reluctant to grant to the newcomer with a manuscript in his hand, he pours out like water upon the same individual when his effort has been accepted. Where, for instance, is the writer of even many books who would not be satisfied with the following estimate of his accomplishment?

The book is a masterpiece; it is a work of the finest humor; it is intensely human; its creative power and characteriza-

tion equal the very best of Sterne or Dumas.

Beside this, it seems poor and mean to say merely that "the author has a pleasing wit and an ingenious fancy, and the book is just the sort to be read aloud to a summer gathering," but who was there to say even so much for Cervantes or Geoffrey of Monmouth?

Not a few of our writers add to their literary reputation political fame and position. This is not a new phenomenon, as Milton and Addison attest, but, like these other rewards, it has a flavor that in former times it lacked. The author of "Comus" was not benefited in a literary way by his political activities. On the contrary, it forced him to suspend writing for so long that he might well have despaired of turning out a work of any length again. With our authors, the case is different. Booth Tarkington's election to the Indiana Legislature did not seriously interfere with his writing. As soon as he had gained the maximum of political repute with the minimum of attention to politics, he resigned and settled down to write for the larger, or at least, more interested, public that then gave heed to him. This beautiful enlistment of political activity in the service of literature is one of the artistic triumphs of our time. The experience of Edward Bellamy, it is true, seems to point in the opposite direction. His "Looking Backward" was hailed, not as the simple piece of fiction which he had meant it to be, but as a programme of reform, and he found himself, to his embarrassment, regarded as the prophet if not as the protagonist of a new order. He had set out to write a novel, and was taken for a revolutionist. But 1887 is not 1912. We and our writers understand each other better now. To-day, under proper advice, Bellamy and Tolstoy, too, would go on writing novels while announcing each one as a restatement of his social ideas.

Novels—or plays. For we are in grave danger of wrongly distributing our literary rewards. To be a novelist is nothing, but to write for the stage, even by the roundabout process of first writing a novel and then having it dramatized, is the acme of literary success. Why should one laboriously turn the pages of a thick volume when one can get the best parts of it in three hours by merely sitting in a theatre, and, as Squeers would say, watching the actors

go and do it? Still, we are no worse than our ancestors in this also. What chance had the novelist in Elizabethan days when a hundred unscrupulous playwrights were waiting to pounce upon his story and transfer it to the boards without so much as a thank you? It is something to recognize the right of the fiction-writer to the product of his pen. Copyright, national and international, is not the least of the rewards which Homer and Holinshed went without, but which are the portion of the humblest modern author.

FRENCH BOOK NOTES.

PARIS, July 31.

"Napoléon Ier et le Monopole universitaire" (A. Colin, 4 francs), by A. Aulard, the well-known Radical historian of the French Revolution, appeared some time ago. In subject and treatment, it is a book of present-day importance; but it is also valuable for the knowledge it gives of one among the many activities of Napoleon's organizing mind. And it touches essentially, though incompletely, the little understood upspringing of old intellectual habits that survived all Revolution and, particularly, the spontaneous revival of religious education. These latter questions are in the line neither of M. Aulard's understanding of history nor of his method of writing it; but their discussion is not necessary to the question he proposes to himself:

I should like to dispel confusion and set inaccuracies right by an impartial historic view for readers of every sentiment, whether hostile or favorable to what is called the principle of liberty of teaching, hostile or favorable to what is called the eminent right of the state to teach and to teach alone. I should like all such readers to be able, both with profit and security, to read my narrative and find in it authentic and significant facts to check off their opinion or to help them form an opinion.

It may be safely said that we have here the most enlightening study yet made of the "origin and working of the Imperial University," that is, of the facts and official documents connected with its existence under Napoleon himself. It is only a few years since the one "University of France" meant the entire organization of public instruction in the country, and the conferring of certificates and diplomas and degrees of every kind, from the most primary to the highest specialized instruction, still remains the exclusive function of state examiners. An exact acquaintance with this Napoleonic idea and its application in years when he was legislating France into conformity with the inevitable outcome of the Revolution is

of obvious utility now. For, under the present Third Republic, Radicals are demanding a yet more absolute state monopoly of education, while Moderate Republicans still plead for the liberty of private initiative.

The book is the least controversial work of an author whose acknowledged mastery of documents has not relieved him of the suspicion of partisan misunderstanding and incompleteness in their use. In the present case, he frankly explains that he has been obliged to leave whole departments uninvestigated; and this has been made a subject of rather unnecessary criticism. In reality, the historical school of the document, of which Professors Aulard and Seignobos are the chief representatives in France, can work only within limits. In polemics against Taine, incompleteness is a legitimate reproach. In the study of Napoleon's organization of the state as educator, the case is not the same. The present volume shows all the qualities which have won for its author his singular reputation as an historian. There is the same persistent method of handling only what may be called "official" documents, to the neglect of those which are individual. This is sufficient for the present purpose, since it is an official monopoly of education which is in question.

For M. Aulard, Napoleon was more or less the dupe of his own instruments, and of Fontanes in particular; but it also seems that he knew this and accepted it as inevitable in his one-man restoration of law and order in France. At the time, our author thinks the experiment resulted rather in a strict state supervision of private teaching, with disagreeable fiscal operations. The lesson for our republican time, with a many-man Parliament in place of Napoleon, is not so clear. For the moment France is veering towards toleration, and the Radical idea of a complete state monopoly of education is not likely to be realized. It is of interest to the world at large to make acquaintance with this historical realization, however imperfect, of the "eminent right of the state to teach and to teach alone."

"Les Transformations du droit civil" (A. Colin, 3.50 francs), by Joseph Charmont, professor at the University of Montpellier, follows up to the present day another work of the master organizer—the Civil Code promulgated in 1804 as a part of what is known outside of France as the Code Napoleon. The book is not technical, and starts from the work of those who drew up this code of civil or "private" law. Its evolution is followed in successive French legislation down to our own time amid changes intellectual and moral, political and social. The author first takes up the family which, in spite of Rousseau and Revolution, remains the traditional unit of French society. He finds three

economic causes working on it through new legislation: the compulsory division of property among inheriting children; the practice of stock companies, which has made France a nation of investing families in possessions not of the family; and the industrial system. Next come legislative measures concerning marriage, in virtue of which family power has dwindled without becoming extinct, and the condition of woman and child in and out of marriage. The evolution of private property has been twofold, in contrary directions—a gradual disappearance of agrarian communism and a successive restriction of property-holders' rights. The book closes with a study of the origin and consequences, not yet worked out, of the new idea born from the development of industries and machinism, that is, the idea of professional risk in law. It is rich in references and will prove useful to those interested in social problems.

"L'Evolution de la France agricole" (A. Colin, 3.50 francs), by Michel Augé-Laribé, deals chiefly with the present agricultural activity of France. By the intensive cultivation of her own comparatively limited territory, France has come nearer than any other European country to supplying from her own production her people's demands for food. This has always been the national tendency, even in times when agriculture has been weighed down by extraneous and unnecessary burdens. Arthur Young was struck by it in the days preceding the Revolution. In Henry Reeve's "Royal and Republican France" may be found contemporary witness to the immense progress made up to the Second Empire. Our author, fifty years later, studies from the most recent documents the economic situation of French agriculture to-day; the technical progress that has been made in it; the division of property; rural depopulation; associations and the development of Agrarian Socialism; and the political and moral work of Peasant Democracy. Among the many bright spots, he points faithfully to the dark defect—cities and factories have taken men and money away from the country, not to speak of the invading city fashion of small families. The same defect, without the partially counterbalancing thrift and minute industry of the French people, is becoming the urgent rural problem in other civilized countries. A book like this presents France as an object-lesson to the world.

"La Crise française" (Librairie Plon, 3.50 francs), by André Chéradame, is a complete and systematic summary of "facts—causes—solutions" as presented by those who are sure there is a "crisis" in France. It is certainly an interesting, and almost a necessary, book for those who wish to know France from within rather than judge like shrewd

Sir Phillistine who all his life on the outside passes. Its author, by schooling and training, by experience abroad and political journalism at home, has been prepared for his work. The defect of Nationalism like his is to be satisfied with labels and formulas resonant to one's sympathies and with general assertions and classifications of facts which will not stand close analysis. Edouard Drumont is an extreme example, and his life of brilliant polemics has only exasperated the evil, whatever it may have been, which he set out to attack. It would be unjust to class M. Chéradame with him or his school; his analysis of the factors in the Dreyfus Affair is sufficient to reassure us on this point. His book also is too full of ideas, representing what he sincerely takes to be facts, to leave space for partisan rhetoric. There is, however, the tendency to generalize and to accept the generalization as reality, whereas Locke, like the scholastics before him, warns us that only "particulars" do really exist—with men as with other things. With this reservation, the book is what its author wished it to be, a repertory of the leading facts which, in his opinion, have united in creating in France political, social, moral, and military disorganization. It is undoubtedly in tune with the present popular movement away from a Republic that was weak because its people were divided against each other towards a government, not necessarily un-republican, which shall be strong by ceasing to divide. Translated into "particulars," this may mean nothing more formidable than that a generation which wishes to go automobiling will not allow itself to be distracted by a preceding generation that has lived on politics. From the methodical table of contents and his pronounced marginal titles, the foreign readers of M. Chéradame's book will easily find those reasons of the prevailing French discontent which are likely to interest them. With a view to the irrepressible conflict between France and Germany, of which he laboriously studies the least elements, our patriotic author proposes a detailed adaptation of the military, naval, diplomatic, financial, and administrative forces of his country. The reserves of strength which he discovers very properly among his fellow-citizens may, after all, delay the conflict indefinitely.

"En pensant au Pays" (Hachette, 3.50 francs), by Cornells de Witt, deals essentially with the same problems as M. Chéradame's book, and the conclusions are not essentially different; but its good literature, so different in form, its touching sentiment and immethodical pensive looking before and after with elderly eyes, make it more convincing to the outsider. Here we have French "particulars" in real life as actors and witnesses—farmers and

schoolmasters, priests and officers. The author begins with the last patriotic words of Guizot, his grandfather, and gives his own living impressions of France as he has seen her gradual transformation since the rude shock of war and defeat in 1870. What is her people's hurt? and what shall cure it, and how? As might be expected, it is the book of an old-fashioned Liberal Protestant, so liberal that he all but seems a Reactionary, and not Protestant enough to wish a revenge for the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, which should bring the whole French people down to a moral slough of despond. In beautifully written pages, he too appeals to French youth—and, doubtless, the not easily managed vitality of youth will leap from the ruts in which he sees the republic fallen on to smooth ground again.

S. D.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

In the introduction to Volume V of the admirable Knutsford edition of Mrs. Gaskell's Works, Dr. A. W. Ward says (page xii) concerning the first appearance of the author's story "The Manchester Marriage," that it "seems to have been first printed in Littell's Living Age, a paper published in Boston, U. S. A., in 1859." On page xxv we find the definite statement that "Mrs. Gaskell's story of 'The Manchester Marriage' was first printed in 1859, in a Boston (U. S. A.) journal bearing the name of Littell's Living Age."

Those familiar with the "paper" in question may wonder at this, but Dr. Ward could perhaps not be expected to know that the *Living Age* is made up of reprinted articles. Axon's "Gaskell Bibliography," it may be mentioned, does not list the first appearance in periodicals of those of Mrs. Gaskell's writings which were subsequently printed in book form. It does, however, say under "Right at Last, and other Tales," in which "The Manchester Marriage" was printed in 1860: "The preface states that the tales are reprints from 'Household Words' and 'All the Year Round.'"

Dr. Ward evidently assumed that the entry in "Poole's Index" assigning the story to the *Living Age* meant that it was first published in that periodical.

A reference to the number of the *Living Age* (February 5, 1859), containing "The Manchester Marriage," shows that the story was reprinted from the Christmas, 1858, number of Dickens's magazine, *Household Words*, to which Mrs. Gaskell was a frequent contributor.

This (extra) Christmas number consists of a story entitled "A House to Let," in six chapters, as follows:

- (1.) Over the Way.
- (2.) The Manchester Marriage.
- (3.) Going into Society.
- (4.) Three Evenings in the House [in verse].
- (5.) Trottie's Report.
- (6.) Let at Last.

Chapters 1, 5, and 6 form the framework of the story, while the other chapters are really independent tales, each relating an incident in the history of the House. The editors of "The Letters of Charles Dickens," and later Mr. Hutton, in his "Letters

of Charles Dickens to Wilkie Collins," have pointed out the connection of a letter of September 6, 1858, from Dickens to Collins with this Christmas number of *Household Words*. Dickens contributed the chapter "Going into Society" (which is to be found in his works under the same title), while Collins evidently wrote the framework story and the links connecting the different chapters. Charles Dickens the Younger states in his edition of "Charles Dickens's Stories from the Christmas Numbers of 'Household Words' and 'All the Year Round'" that "only a small portion of the framework (if any) was written by Charles Dickens."

There is no reason to suppose that "The Manchester Marriage" was written with a view to its incorporation in "A House to Let." The story as it appeared in *Household Words* is the same, word for word, as printed elsewhere, with the exception of a few insignificant external changes, as, for example, in the first sentence, which reads: "Mr. and Mrs. Openshaw came from Manchester to London and took the House to Let" instead of "Mr. and Mrs. Openshaw came from Manchester to settle in London."

"A House to Let" is most accessible in the regular reprint of *Household Words* by Frederic A. Brady, N. Y., or in the separate edition published by T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia, 1859.

A. K. HARDY.

Correspondence

DR. FURNESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Less than a week ago I received a letter from Dr. Furness in which, after speaking of the loss of several dear friends, he went on: "My nepenthe, however, is work, into which it is impossible at eighty to throw as much energy as at thirty. If all goes well I hope to deliver 'Cymbeline' to the mercies of the printers in a month or two. And then I shall rest and patch up my old body for heaven." In the light of the event the last words seem prophetic.

Since the news of his death reached Baltimore, I have been turning over various letters which I have had from him, letters full of kindly encouragement and advice, with comments on theatrical and literary affairs. A few lines from a letter which I received in Rome some years since may be quoted:

Your mention of Tours reminds me that when I was there two or three years ago, I was regarded, in the fine hotel there, . . . as a venerable curiosity, because I remembered the great historic inundation of 1856, when I sailed in a boat through the streets and saw the bakers in boats delivering bread into the second-story windows, and remember the Emperor when he came down personally to cheer the inhabitants. What a delightful country Touraine is, and, indeed, all France. After traveling there for a while, we learn that Paris is not France and does not in the least represent it. I respect England, but I love France, where there is a geniality in the atmosphere which the fogs of England chill. This passage is typical of the light touches of reminiscence and comment with which the letters abounded.

To know Dr. Furness one had to see him in his library, surrounded by books among which he had worked steadfastly for more than forty years. The many thousand vol-

umes were ranged all around, the higher shelves being reached by a staircase and balcony built in the room. He had assembled a collection of Shakespeareana probably unsurpassed in the world. On "Hamlet" alone there are more than four hundred works. He had a complete set of the folios, the First Folio being kept in a special case and consulted only when the final revision of proofs was under way. A few of the quartos were in his possession, though for editorial purposes the various photographic facsimiles have in recent years been amply sufficient. His collection of souvenirs and relics of actors and actresses in Shakespearean rôles was most interesting. I recollect, for example, the crown of straw worn by Kean in the mad scenes of "King Lear," and the bond carried by Booth in the court scene of "The Merchant of Venice." Most remarkable of all, as is well known, and kept in a case like that containing his First Folio, were the "property gloves" said to have belonged to Shakespeare. Their history goes back without a break, through Mrs. Kemble, Mrs. Siddons, and Garrick, to a certain John Ward who received them in 1746 from "a descendant of the family" of Shakespeare. Long ago Mr. Percy Fitzgerald spoke of these gloves as a "doubtful relic," but one should not always "smile at the claims of long descent," and in such matters credulity is its own reward and is a faculty to be cultivated. At least I thought so when Dr. Furness opened the case and let me touch the gloves which may have covered Shakespeare's hands.

Snatches of Dr. Furness's talk come to mind. I remember his delight when I told him of Miss Marlowe's now well-known reading of the word "sun" in the last act of "The Taming of the Shrew," a reading which he called "a stroke of inspiration bordering on genius." He spoke of the Baconian theory, which he said was almost as prevalent as the measles and from which most people recovered as soon. With mock indignation he demanded that the Baconians should read the Essay "Of Gardens" and the fourth act of "The Winter's Tale," or the Essay "Of Love" and the third act of "Romeo and Juliet." "If they still believe that the man who wrote the essays wrote those scenes, I give them up!" he said. He was impatient of the endless disputes as to the exact date of the composition of the individual plays, and like Professor Saintsbury was inclined to be skeptical as to the value of minute details of biography, preferring to leave untouched the divinity which hedges the kingship of Shakespeare. In spite of years of the minutest textual criticism, he disliked (while appreciating its importance) the ceaseless poring over commas and semi-colons which to some editors is not only literally but figuratively bread and meat. He spoke with pleasure of a visit to Baltimore when he lectured, I think, at the Peabody Institute, and of friends at the Johns Hopkins, particularly of Professor Haupt, with whom he had been associated in some Biblical studies, and of Professor Bright, to whom he was indebted for several notes in the New Variorum.

Of Dr. Furness's achievement as an editor this is not the place to speak. Though his own contributions to disputes were frequently enlightening (and they greatly increased in number in the later volumes), he did not lay claim to be an aesthetic and

philosophic critic. Among such critics of the present day he accorded first place to Mr. A. C. Bradley, of whom he once wrote to me: "In the Shakespearean world at present I hear no voice but his," and again: "To me, he is certainly on a level with Coleridge. If, in some respects, he does not surpass him." The only position he claimed for himself was that of a pair of scissors, and he sought to eliminate all signs of personality. That was impossible; I venture to say that in no scholarly work is the editor's personality more delightfully apparent. It showed itself in that rarest of editorial endowments—humor, which appears in most unexpected places (as when at the close of a discussion about the folklore gathered round the man in the moon he remarks: "After all the only thing which concerns us is his premature arrival and strange desire to go to Norwich"), and which lightens up the darkest dispute and refreshes the student in the most arid desert of controversy. He brought to his work personality, enthusiasm, and singleness of purpose. He was no dry-as-dust pedant, and was broad in his interests, but his life was Shakespeare. In one of his letters I find these words: "To know that fresh, young, enthusiastic spirits are entering the world of Shakespeare, wherein there lies for them illimitable growth, cannot but fill with measureless content one who is finishing the journey, and to whom that world is fast vanishing in the lengthening shadows." Throughout that "Journey" he went "dietro alle poste delle care piante." His was the constant service of the antique world, which in that good old man appeared, indeed, well.

These are but random recollections and impressions, but perhaps they will serve as a tribute from one who valued his friendship as a precious gift.

SAMUEL C. CHEW, JR.
Roland Park, Md., August 15.

PROFESSIONAL MOTIVES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter from a college professor on "Professional Motives," which you published last week, brings up the greatest of all questions, namely: What is any rightminded and normal man living for? or, as the old Catechism put it: "What is the chief end of man"? Grant that we all begin on the selfish or egotistic level. Nevertheless, we become presently aware. If we once have a fair chance to open our eyes, that while there is a constant "give and take" in the course of our lives, it makes all the difference in the world on which side of the balance we put the habitual emphasis of our will. Issues constantly arise to try us and discover what we are about. Do we seek to get all we can, and to give as little as we can? That way lies the slow death of manhood and happiness. Do we seek and desire to give and do as much as we can, and to be as socially useful as possible? This seems immediately, and more and more, to agree with our constitution. I mean that this ensures the largest possible flow of life and power.

It matters little what one calls this resolute good will which characterizes all the best men and women. I like as little to call it "altruism" as your corre-

spondent seems to do. This word makes an unfortunate division of interest between the self and others. But I do not think that "egotism," even of the most refined sort, is an accurate word by which to describe what we have in mind. Though a man, at his best, in doing righteous and social things, is doing precisely what he likes best to do, this is a "selfishness" that would send him to death on occasion, at the call of conscience or of love. People ought not to use "egotism" for this quality. I suppose that, in the best sense of the word, this type of will and character and conduct is religious, inasmuch as the life from which it comes seems to be simply borne in upon us, with the same gladness and compelling power as that which makes the trees bear their fruit, or the birds sing.

May I add a word of deprecation of the idea that the predominant social motive is specially characteristic of the so-called "Professions." As the son of a Congregational minister, I was brought up to believe that there is nothing holy in the ministry that is not equally to be found in every honest calling. Is there any decent business in which men are engaged, which is not a form of social service? Ought not, then, all men who work, to have the satisfaction, not merely of being paid and of getting a living, but better yet, of knowing that the best quality of their work is never too good to be put out for the common welfare? CHARLES F. DOLE.
Southwest Harbor, Me., August 20.

LECKY ON THE DEMAGOGUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter in your issue of August 15, entitled the "Method of the Bull Moose," quoting Le Bon's book on "The Crowd," leads me to quote a passage from Lecky's "Democracy and Liberty," pp. 18-19 (English edition of 1896):

Every one who will look facts honestly in the face can convince himself that the public opinion of a nation is something quite different from the votes that can be extracted from all the individuals who compose it. There are multitudes in every nation who contribute nothing to its public opinion; who never give a serious thought to public affairs, who have no spontaneous wish to take any part in them; who, if they are induced to do so, will act under the complete direction of individuals or organizations of another class. . . . And in a pure democracy the art of winning and accumulating these votes will become one of the chief parts of practical politics.

The demagogues will try to persuade the voter that by following a certain line of policy every member of his class will obtain some advantage. He will encourage all his utopias. He will hold out hopes that by breaking contracts, or shifting taxation, and the power of taxing, or enlarging the paternal functions of government, something of the prosperity of one class may be transferred to another. . . . Every real grievance will be aggravated; every redressed grievance will be revived; every imaginary grievance will be encouraged. . . . To set the many against the few becomes the chief object of the electioneering agent.

A. L. B.

Ripon, Wis., August 21.

A PROFANATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As one whose reverence for the sacred things of the Church's belief has been offended time and time again by pro-

fane use or reference to them on the part of politicians, I wish to protest against the following:

The "grand old party" is a mouldering in the grave.
It came and saved the nation, but itself it cannot save.
It's Boss Barnes's plaything, and it's Guggenheim's slave.
But we go marching on.

The phrase italicized gets what dignity it has in the wretched context from its reflecting the dramatic use made of a similar thought in regard to the One who lived in suffering and poverty and died in agony to save mankind. The association is intolerable.

OSCAR WOODWARD ZEIGLER.

Baltimore, August 18.

THE FUNCTION AND THE MACHINERY OF GOVERNMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the inconsistencies kindly pointed out by the reviewer of my "Origin of the English Constitution" (*Nation*, July 25), there is one that occasions me some remorse. It is the contradiction which is said to exist between the statement that "the Norman state was simple and undifferentiated," and another that "we seem to have the right to say that the legislative, judicial, conciliar, and military functions of the state in their ordinary operation were thoroughly feudalized and the administrative system partially so." I ought, I think, to have made more clear the distinction between the functions of the government and the machinery by which it exercises those functions. I suppose that all governments which have developed far enough to be at all worthy of the name perform the same great functions of the state, but the institutions through which different governments exercise any one function are apt to differ widely; it is possible, indeed, for a state to perform more than one function through the same institution, and the business of the constitutional historian is to describe and account for differences and similarities of machinery. He has little to do with function in itself. That duty falls to the student of political science. The distinction is one of considerable importance at any given moment of the historian's work.

My form of statement was undoubtedly careless, but it did not occur to me that any one would think I really intended to say that function was feudalized, to confuse function with machinery, or to imply that because a state performs various functions, therefore its government machinery is of a differentiated type. The Norman state, as I believe, and the Anglo-Norman state certainly, performed the legislative, judicial, and conciliar functions, and a part of the administrative, by the use of a single, simple, and undifferentiated piece of machinery which was thoroughly feudalized. The administrative system was a partial exception in both respects, because of the necessary use, in addition to the central institution, of a local officer who under neither government made his office feudal. In England the sheriff was, I think, an entirely non-feudal officer, despite a slight tendency to hereditary shrievalties, and, as a connecting link between the local and the central governments, the office is a most interesting instance of the

influence of Saxon institution on details of the Norman general government, the most interesting, I think, of the several cases of the sort. The sentence in regard to the Norman government being made to read, as it should have been in the first place, that the piece of machinery by which it exercised the functions named was thoroughly feudalized, it follows, I believe, that the statements which your reviewer puts together are both accurate, and that no contradiction exists between them. I the more regret the opportunity which I have here given to misunderstanding, because I have a feeling that among the many shortcomings of the book a lack of clearness is not in many places to be counted.

G. B. ADAMS.

Newport, Vt., August 15.

Literature

CHINESE PROVINCES.

In Forbidden China. The d'Ollone Mission, 1906-1909, China—Tibet—Mongolia. By Vicomte d'Ollone. Translated from the French of the second edition by Bernard Miall. With 146 illustrations, a map, and a portrait. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. \$3.50.

The history of China is the story of a gradual process of conquest and amalgamation that began, probably, two thousand years before the Christian era and still continues. For the reason that European knowledge of the empire has been acquired from its coastal side, where this secular operation was long completed, Western observers until recent years have generally ignored the fact that even China proper is yet a nation in the making, while the great husk of sterile territory surrounding the eighteen provinces remains as foreign to the China of history as India is to England. The peoples against whom this culture conquest has proceeded may be roughly divided into three convenient groups, the aborigines who occupied the fertile lands draining into the ocean, the Tibetans on the west, and the Tartars on the north. During the past millennium the last named have advanced far to the south and imposed their rule upon the older state under successive dynasties, effecting a mixture, like that of the Celts and Teutons in France, ending in complete infusion, while preserving the culture of the more highly civilized group. The Tibetans, though less successful as invaders, have conquered at different times various portions of the empire. Their main contribution to China has been the form of religion that now controls a majority of its inhabitants. Of the aborigines who occupied China before the Chinese, there remain only scattered bands that survive the pressure of many centuries of compulsion in mountain fastnesses, where

they have defied the overwhelming odds arrayed against them.

Several attempts have been made by Europeans to explore the districts still preserved to these barbarians, out of whose tribes and territories the Chinese have developed their own nation. Chinese writers know almost nothing about them, and give them all a bad name; Chinese officials are uniformly shy of them, and object to investigations on the part of others. It may be asserted with some confidence that no one of them recognizes any relation to the genesis of China. It is characteristic of the Gallic sense of method and collocation that the French should have been the first to conceive a plan of examining the problem of Chinese origins as a whole by equipping an expedition to investigate existing remains of these survivals in turn as they can be found in the western highlands of China. The scientific results of the d'Ollone Mission, which performed this task with success during three years of hard travel, are being given to the world in seven large volumes by the French Government. The work before us is a readable narrative of its experiences—a book full of human interest, of the charm of the picturesque and unfamiliar. But it is more than this. It reveals at once the operation of racial struggles that penetrate the remote past of Chinese history, and the sturdy character of an opposition to the domination of a people which we have been taught to regard as homogeneous throughout the length and breadth of the provinces. In its way it is the most important contribution that has ever been made to our knowledge of the racial sources of the Chinese and of the enslavement of primitive survivals.

Three considerable groups of these survivals have retained independence of the Chinese. They are the Lolos, in southern Szechuan; the Miao-tze, in Kweichow, and the Si-fan, in the eastern projection of Tibet which marches on the northern border of Szechuan. "Their countries," declares the author, "forbidden to the foreigner, are the only portions of the globe which are to-day unexplored." Each of these regions was approached in turn by the Frenchmen and their few attendants, and into each they had to proceed against not only considerable physical obstacles and tribal attacks, but the objections of the Chinese provincial authorities. The Lolos visited appear to be a section of a tribe once in Kweichow, who abandoned their country when the Manchu dynasty was powerful enough to drive them further from the centre, but not sufficiently well supported to compel their subjection in the magnificent mountain knot to which they fled. Here in an Alpine land, some two hundred miles north of Yunnan-fu, these doughty

tribesmen have maintained their feudal array, served by slaves obtained in frequent raids upon the neighboring Chinese, and managing somehow to procure from their ancient enemies such necessities as rice, cotton, and tobacco. The explorers were able to penetrate their lofty haunts by being passed from one friendly clan to another, but no Chinese guards were allowed to accompany them. When doubts arose as to permitting the strangers to advance from the domain of one chief to another, the Frenchmen would give an exhibition of the carrying power of their rifles, an argument to which no Lolo was insensible. There was no fighting, for the intruders would have been snuffed out in a minute, but the respect of these warriors for the power which such instruments of precision indicated was impressive. An ancestral suit of armor was exchanged by one noble for a carbine which he would never be able to use, for want of cartridges; yet he was satisfied to have it so as a sufficient symbol of authority.

The Miao-tze, in the adjoining province of Kweichow, were visited by the author's two lieutenants, and consequently come in for less detailed attention in his narrative. Their discoveries, however, were scarcely surpassed by their chief's. The so-called "Independent Miao-tze" of Chinese geographers were found to have reached this region from Hunan, when they drove out the Yao, but they were in turn driven out by the Tai—racial relatives of the Siamese—and it is these, not the suppressed Miao-tze, who are allowed autonomy under their seigneurs, but who submit to Chinese authority. From this unexplored domain nearly two hundred manuscripts and inscriptions may reveal, when examined, the relationships among the non-Chinese occupants of this sub-tropical wilderness.

The third part of the explorers' journey was devoted to a region which, though called Tibet on the map, appears to be inhabited by the warlike descendants of those Tanguts who have ever been a thorn in the side of China. These Si-fan, "Western Barbarians" of Chinese books, differ entirely from the Tibetans of the Himalayas. "There was no resemblance," says the author, "between this tribe of warriors, who are always in the saddle, lance in hand, and the heavy agriculturists or the timid herdsmen hitherto described. The difference was complete and explained by the difference of language; the vocabularies we compiled have nothing in common with the Tibetan language nor the derivatives we had met on the confines of the country. We were apparently dealing with a people absolutely unknown to Europe, although apparently ancient and illustrious." Much the

most difficult and dangerous experience in the three years' expedition was met among the clans of this savage confederation, amid mountains eighteen thousand feet high, where every man's hand is raised against his neighbor. The lamas, who are the real rulers of these nominally independent tribes, and who watched the advent of the strangers with jealousy, nearly brought about the ruin of the caravan. Deprived of their yaks and their drivers, the party succeeded at last in reaching the monastic seat of Lhabrang—a splendid city of three-storied houses and twenty huge monasteries administered by the Living Buddha—under a Mongol prince who actually proved to be a descendant of that Subatal of Genghis's horde who once conquered Russia and bathed his horses in the Adriatic. From this terrible country the Mission passed to the ancient haunts of Mongol power beyond the Great Wall.

The end of this remarkable tour brought M. d'Ollone by a wide détour along the great bend of the Yellow River, past several sites of archaeological interest, to Wu-tai-shan, where he obtained an interview with the Dalai Lama the day before his departure to Peking; from thence he reached the railway and the familiar civilization of China Proper. The importance of the discoveries made can hardly be overestimated, though it would be premature to speculate before the publication of the official record upon the value of some of the conclusions presented. While this popular account of the journey suffers from extreme condensation and a consequent meagreness of details as to the researches involved, its style is sufficiently vivid to render it interesting even to those who are indifferent to what can be learned in the great hinterland of China.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Goodly Fellowship. By Rachel Capen Schaffer. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Miss Schaffer's name is guarantee for her competency to write of missionary work in Persia, and this, her book, is proof of her marked ability in constructing a novel. Jean Stuart of New York and Bar Harbor, travelling alone in Persia, would naturally meet adventures. When out of great peril she is delivered into the safe-keeping of the American Mission at Muramna, leaving in her wake a baffled and enraged Moslem courier, material is seen for the tale of danger and difficulty that follows. Jean, a red-haired society girl, of high temper, kind heart, and great common sense, makes the best of her enforced winter's domestication among the mission workers. There are twenty-five of these all told, adults and

children. Most of them we learn to know intimately, several gladly; but the spirit of the place is the acquaintance most worth making for those who think of foreign missions as fields of narrow bigotries on a prescribed level.

The extreme expression of the modern impulse is found in the hero, a brawny doer of deeds. If at last religion claims all, there is little bigotry and no cant. The characters of one or two of the missionaries are of a saintliness that even the world must love. The martyrdom of one is an echo of the fate that actually befel Miss Schaffer's brother-in-law, the Rev. Benjamin Labaree. To this tragedy the book is said to owe its inspiration. With great tenderness is described that devoted side of missionary life which will not use the word self-sacrifice. Yet an outsider seeing with eyes of humor or prejudice is made to interpret the scene, and from scoffing is made to arrive at praying by the route of practical sympathy and under the gentle compulsion of noble example. The unworldliness of the leaders is offset by characters of more average clay, whose foibles, humorously described, heighten the naturalness of the group. Outside the city walls, industries, errands of mercy, and perils are vividly described, with the sick, the benighted, or the ferocious ever at hand. Condensation could be endured in respect of the heart-struggles and facial grimaces of the hero and of feats of voice and eye on the part of the heroine. "My!" is a hoary sinner, and universal "chuckling" a growing blemish. But these are flecks, and do not avail to dim the interest or merits of the book.

The Forest on the Hill. By Eden Phillpotts. New York: John Lane Co.

It is said that Mr. Phillpotts is about to abandon Dartmoor, feeling that he has done all that he can profitably do with that theme and setting. This is perhaps wise, though one doubts if there can be any other spot on earth which he can hope to interpret half as happily. Two-score novels in a single narrow provincial setting are about "all the traffic will bear," no doubt. And one must admit that in the later stories the stream begins to run a little thin. Or, rather, it begins to return upon itself. The general situation upon which the present story is based is much like that of more than one of the earlier novels. Drusilla Whyddon, the woman of simple and bountiful nature, doomed to suffer by her very excess of virtue, has been this writer's heroine from "The Whirlwind" to "Demeter's Daughter." And the two men who strive for her are the familiar two who figure antithetically in so many of the stories, the puritan and the pagan—upper and nether millstone, so far as the woman herself is concerned. Here

also is one of those rude primeval natures, Lot Snow, a grim old savage close akin to Iron Mortimore of "The Beacon" and to other more dimly-recalled figures of our Dartmoor past. The scene shifts, as usual, from cottage to open, and from open to the inn, with its talkative and even choral bar. And, as always, there are passages of lyrical description, in which the writer displays an almost voluptuous abandon to the charm of nature—never as a solitary nature, but as a stage, beautiful or grim, upon which little man plays his leading part. The story of Drusilla Whyddon and her two men is sombre enough; but human nature shines through it, as always in these Dartmoor tales—a possession worth having, however luckless its immediate experience. Drusilla, as we leave her, is a forlorn figure, but not a figure of feebleness or mere pathos.

The Adjustment. By Marguerite Bryant. New York: Duffield & Co.

The author of "Christopher Hibbault, Roadmaker" shows in this, her latest novel, many of the traits of the earlier book. There is the same high-mindedness, the lofty patience, the passionate sympathy with hurt creatures, the half-mysticism, the mild humor, the unsparing detail. Put together in a decidedly ingenious plot, of injuries, penalties, and pardons, they yield a story which holds the reader even while he kicks against the pricks of improbability. The saints of Miss Bryant's story are very, very saintly; the worldlings are witty or prosy, as required; the sinners are touched with charm and an infinite capacity for being reformed. With Rachel Massendon the law of love was the law of life. So fully did she trust this law that, having imbued her daughter Christina with the doctrine, she had no fear, when called by duty to a distant land, in leaving the young girl to her own guidance. On so high a plane of unselfishness the story moves that conventionalities appear only as unreal and jocular accompaniments to life. It testifies to the good faith of the book that the reader, after gasping awhile in the rarefied atmosphere, accepts the writer's attitude and follows without undue criticism the most unafraid ventures of pity and generosity into regions of error and discouragement. The world is in good hands. All good things, including good endings to miserable beginnings, are "meant." To further the "meaning," the weakest may dare all. The most incorrigible may be drawn back within the pale. Even for the gambler and forger there may be a future of self-respect and peace. Mystic, Roman Catholic, Protestant, all are invested with the mantle of charity, and the impression strongly survives that, though unnamed, the guardian divinity of the novel is Christian Science.

The Citadel. By Samuel Merwin. New York: The Century Co.

Mr. Merwin calls his story "A Romance of Unrest." In a romance there must inevitably be a dragon to be slain and a stronghold to be captured. Mr. Merwin's dragon is fixity in human institutions; his stronghold the Constitution of the United States. This his hero calls "The Citadel of Reaction and Restraint"; and his heroine, "an ignorant attempt to block, to retard, the biological law of change." The hero's ambition is "to smash the rigidity of the Constitution."

A Congressman of the present time, representing sundry conservative interests in an Illinois town, one day suddenly breaks out in a speech denunciatory of the Constitution as a bar to progress. Denounced by Conservatives and disowned by the alarmed Insurgents and Progressives, but warmly applauded by a young woman, a biologist in the Department of Agriculture, he breaks with his constituents and becomes a candidate for reelection by the poorer districts of his city. To his standard flock the radicals, the Socialists, the single-taxers, the woman's suffrage party, all advanced thinkers and theorists, not to say all the honest, the virtuous, and the oppressed. Something like the millennium is to follow the crippling of the Constitution and the adoption of the initiative, the referendum, and the recall. The weapon which is to lay low the citadel is revealed in a flash of insight to Congressman Garwood, as "just an amendment making the Constitution easy and simple to amend instead of difficult." So the dragon-slayer goes through his campaign; and the bosses are against him and the people are with him. Theft, trickery, fraud fight for the Constitution, and all the virtues fight against it. And though the powers of darkness temporarily win, our hero and his bride, who have eloped—from nothing—and been married by an alderman, intend to fight on and educate youth into their own enlightened views. Much preaching is done by politicians and lovers. John, the Congressman, is a forceful lecturer, and may be credited with clear-cut statements of the want of faith that is in him. The novelist has presumed on his power to array all evil against all good, and his vehicle runs lopsidedly. It is almost laughable to find all decency arrayed in hot insurgency, all rascality on the side of law. "The President," on a speechmaking visit, is described as advocating a "quite harmless and toothless progressivism." How different his from Margaret's, who feels the "big concept"; foresees the "revolution brewing in education as in every other department of our haphazard old civilization";—has seen it coming for years, but hasn't "connected it up"—to which her

spouse replies, "That's the problem—connecting up."

HIERATIC TEXTS.

Egyptian Hieratic Texts, transcribed, translated, and annotated by Alan H. Gardiner, D.Litt., Laycock student of Egyptology at Worcester College, Oxford. Series I: Literary Texts of the New Kingdom. Part I: The Papyrus Anastasi and the Papyrus Koller, together with the Parallel Texts. Leipzig, 1911.

The appearance of the first instalment of this series marks the inauguration of a new and important literary enterprise. Even the material form of these documents collected by Gardiner commemorates a great literary contribution. We refer to the fact that, whereas Babylonia contributed to the Mediterranean civilizations the use of the stylus for incised writing on a plastic medium, later continued in the wax tablet of the Roman, the Egyptian, on the other hand, originated and transmitted to the later world the use of pen and ink, making possible writing upon a thin and convenient membrane, papyrus paper. The heavy and inconvenient clay tablet, like its successor of wax, was long ago displaced by the larger surface of the handy roll or still more convenient page of Nile paper, while the stylus gave place to the Egyptian reed pen and carbon ink. For individual use the modern world has not been able to devise a mechanical system of writing essentially different from that so long used on the Nile, nor can the typewriter ever wholly displace the pen and ink discovered some five thousand five hundred years ago by the Egyptian scribes.

It is with some feeling of familiarity and even kinship that we greet the outward form of these documents written with black ink, the paragraphs marked by a word or two in red at the beginning, the ancestor of our rubric, the whole in regular lines on the light brown surface of the papyrus-paper. This cursive hand, written so rapidly by the scribe that little resemblance to the hieroglyphs of the lapidary style survives, has yielded more slowly to the process of decipherment than the elaborate hieroglyphs sculptured on stone, with which we are familiar in our museums or on the temple walls and obelisks of Egypt. It is commonly termed hieratic, and in the task of its decipherment the scholars of England have had a prominent and honorable part. The brilliant work of Goodwin in the early days of such research has been an inspiration to all scholars laboring under adverse and discouraging conditions. Who can but take courage as he looks back upon Goodwin, undauntedly continuing his hieratic studies in a consular office, in China? To our under-

standing of the difficult Middle Kingdom hand, the able Oxford Egyptologist, Griffith, has contributed much, and it is but the continuation of an honorable tradition that his former pupil, Gardiner, should devote his fine abilities and unusual training to a comprehensive edition of a great body of early papyrus documents to which little or no attention has been given for a generation in the British Museum, where most of them are housed.

Gardiner's plan does not involve the reproduction of the original hieratic, of which he gives instead a careful transliteration into hieroglyphic, his text being based on repeated collations of the original papyrus in every case. This hieroglyphic transliteration he publishes in autograph on the left page, while the right is occupied with textual remarks and critical apparatus. To the technical student of Egyptian language and civilization this material is invaluable and fills a long-felt want. On the other hand, all students of ancient literature will find that the introductory summary of contents and the complete translation of each document afford a fascinating glimpse into a long vanished world.

The work which Gardiner has chosen for his first instalment is known among scholars as "Papyrus Anastasi I," one of a group of papyri purchased by the British Museum in 1839 from Signor Anastasi, Swedish Consul in Egypt. It is a contest of wits between two scribes of the reign of Rameses II (thirteenth century, B. C.), in which the weightier contestant writes a letter displaying his superiority over his adversary, to whom the letter is addressed. The writer Hori overwhelms his opponent, Amenemope, with a flood of good-humored raillery at the latter's meagre abilities. In the usual accomplishments and graces of style which should be possessed by the scribe the unhappy Amenemope is shown to be altogether lacking. The scribe must, furthermore, be a man of affairs and display administrative ability. In digging a lake or reservoir Amenemope is unable to calculate the amount of rations required for the troops employed, and when a great ramp or inclined plane is desired, up which to drag the stone for a public building, Amenemope is baffled by the complicated computation of the necessary number of sun-dried brick. A dispatch from the crown-prince arrives, telling of the execution of an obelisk some seventy-three feet in height; but it is not yet in position, and the luckless Amenemope, as caricatured by his merciless adversary, is entirely unable to say how many men should be employed, etc. His caricaturist, displaying noticeable familiarity with the geography of Phœnicia, Syria, and Palestine, passes jauntily from one Asiatic city to another, exposing his victim's ignorance of the foreign world as necessarily known to the well-informed

scribe who would maintain correspondence with the cities of Asia in the days of the Hebrew Exodus. Place-names familiar to students of the Old Testament are common in this list, and even the Jordan emerges here for the first time in history.

A collection of four model letters (Papyrus Koller, Berlin Museum), on which the schoolboys of three thousand years ago practiced their hands, forms the second part of Gardiner's first instalment.

When a sufficient number of parts have appeared to make a volume, indices covering all the material contained in it will be issued, and the paging has been so arranged that it will be possible to bind texts and translations each in volumes by themselves. On the completion of the literary series Gardiner plans to publish others, containing magical texts, business documents, juristic texts, letters, and the like. The author is to be congratulated on the sound and methodical treatment, as well as the literary ability, evident throughout the work. The project when completed will constitute an important achievement in the Oriental field, and it is to be hoped that it may go steadily forward without interruption.

English Apprenticeship and Child Labour: A History. By O. Jocelyn Dunlop. With a supplementary section on the modern problem of juvenile labour, by O. Jocelyn Dunlop and Richard D. Denman, M.P. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$3 net.

Problems of juvenile employment have been much discussed in England in recent years, and many books and pamphlets have been called forth. One of the most important products of the discussion is this bulky and scholarly volume on the history of English apprenticeship from the Middle Ages to the nineteenth century. Though the author may not have discovered anything essentially new, he has brought to light considerable fresh and interesting material of illustrative character from the records of the guilds, companies, cities, and courts of law. The investigation was suggested by Mr. and Mrs. Sidney Webb, and as a piece of research approaches in excellence the well-known historical work of the Webbs.

The story of child labor before the nineteenth century is the story of apprenticeship, which had obtained a firm hold in England by the fifteenth century, and in the sixteenth was crystallized in the Elizabethan Statute of Artificers. From that epoch until the advent of the factory system England had thus a compulsory, cheap, and efficient system of technical training, which at the same time succeeded in avoiding the serious evils of modern child labor. In mediæval times and un-

til the introduction of the factory system children were employed in as many kinds of labor, at as early an age and for as long hours, as since the industrial revolution, but with this marked difference in favor of the earlier period, that employers felt a personal responsibility for the health, morals, and industrial future of the boy; and the guilds were strong enough to punish any delinquency on the part of the masters in their treatment of their apprentices.

The growth of capitalism and the elevation of the doctrine of *laissez faire* into a political and industrial creed removed this personal responsibility and destroyed the guilds, so that the nineteenth century has come to stand out as the period in which child labor has been most ruthlessly exploited.

The leading rôle played by the guilds in enforcing the beneficent features of apprenticeship Mr. Dunlop sets forth in a clear and interesting manner; but it also appears that in the hands of the guilds apprenticeship became a powerful weapon for creating and preserving an industrial monopoly. The apprenticeship system, although capable of providing a sound industrial training, soon became undemocratic and narrow. This the Government was powerless to prevent, because, lacking the necessary administrative machinery, it had to depend on the guilds to enforce the apprenticeship regulations, and the guilds too frequently enforced them in a monopolistic spirit. The guilds, in other words, gradually diverted apprenticeship from its proper function, and this was undoubtedly one of the chief causes of their overthrow. The revolt against apprenticeship in the eighteenth century was apparently at bottom but opposition to guild monopoly.

Apprenticeship as the sole means of entrance to a trade had, from a variety of causes, completely broken down by 1780, though the act itself was not finally repealed until 1814, two centuries and a half after it came into being.

Although most students of the problem agree that it is now impossible as well as undesirable to revive the institution of compulsory apprenticeship, many are inclined to look upon its passing with deep regret, feeling that it represented very wholesome conditions of juvenile employment. It should not be overlooked, however, that in certain respects the situation was far from ideal. The evil of guild monopoly has already been referred to. Technical training and membership in a skilled and honorable trade or profession was only for a chosen few. "Guild limitation of numbers must have closed the door of training and protection in the face of many who would be obliged to occupy themselves, therefore, in unregulated fields of work." It is well to remember, also, that apprenticeship was from the very beginning regarded as a method of poor

relief. Parish officers and overseers of the poor apprenticed their pauper children, and as a rule to an inferior class of masters, who had but slight appreciation of their duties. It is, of course, a well-known fact that it was the miseries of the pauper apprentices in the cotton mills that finally stirred to action the child-labor reformers of the early part of the nineteenth century.

Furthermore, a system of industrial training for boys alone would certainly find few champions at the present day, though that was a marked feature of the old apprenticeship. Women and girls were employed in every branch of industry, even in those requiring heavy manual labor, but there was no systematic training and instruction for them, as there was for the boys.

Although in large measure a presentation of the results of research into the history of child labor and apprenticeship, the book shows from the first pages that its underlying purpose is practical, namely, to emphasize the fact that at the present time too many children and young persons are drawn into "blind alley" occupations, or those "which have little or no prospect of permanence and no educative value either for citizenship or for adult work. Consequently, when they are no longer able to support themselves upon juvenile wages, they are turned adrift and younger workers are taken in their place." The problem to-day is the same in the United States as it is in England. We must show the legislators and the public that "juvenile labor is merely a prelude to adult labor"; that it should not be regarded as an "independent factor in the labor market."

Notes

"Sir Gawain and the Green Knight" has been put into modern English by the Rev. Ernest J. B. Kirtlan, who has also written an introduction on the author and on the Gawain stories in English. The work will be published shortly by C. H. Kelly of London.

The Countess d'Aulnoy's "Memoirs of the Court of England in 1675" will appear shortly from the press of John Lane, edited by G. D. Gilbert. Mr. Gilbert attempts to explain the mystery surrounding Lucy Walter, the mother of the Duke of Monmouth.

Two novels are promised for this month by the Appletons, "The Inheritance," by Josephine Daskam Bacon, and "Marcus Holbeach's Daughter," by Alice Jones.

Lothrop, Lee & Shepard announce "The Sanctuary," a new novel by Maud Howard Peterson, and "The Boy with the U. S. Fisheries," by Dr. Francis Rolt-Wheeler.

"The Man Who Bucked Up," by Arthur Howard, and "Princess Rags and Tatters," by Harriet T. Comstock, are forthcoming stories in the list of Doubleday, Page & Co.

Jean Webster's "Daddy Longlegs" and Hugh Walpole's "A Prelude to Adventure" are new novels announced by the Century Company.

The Hungarian Literary Society is bringing out a volume of Petöfi's Poems. The translator is William N. Loew. The proceeds from the sale of the volume will go towards the erection of a statue of the Magyar poet in New York.

Stokes has in press for issue next month, in fiction: "Between Two Thieves," by Richard Dehan; "Lifted Masks," by Susan Glaspell; "A Whistling Woman," by Robert Halifax; "Miss Wealthy, Deputy Sheriff," by Elizabeth Neff; "The Bride's Hero," by M. P. Revere; "Eve's Other Children," by Lucille Van Slyke; "King-Errant," by Flora Annie Steel, and "My Robin," by Frances Hodgson Burnett.—Miscellaneous: "At Prior Park and Other Papers," by Austin Dobson; "The Spirit of Christmas, and Other Prose Poems," by Arthur H. Gleason; "The Story of the Idylls of the King," by Inez McFee, and "The Lovers' Baedeker," by Carolyn Wells.

Among the books which Cassell will publish this autumn are, in fiction: "The Strong Hand," by Warwick Deeping; "The Man at Lone Lake," by Virna Sheard; "The House of Windows," by Isabel Ecclestone Mackay; "The White Gauntlet," by Percy Brebner; "The Adventures of Napoleon Prince," by Mary Edington, and "Violet Forster's Lover," by Richard Marsh.—Miscellaneous: "First Sketch of English Literature," by Henry Morley, revised; "The Story of the Renaissance," by William Henry Hudson; "Thackeray," by Sidney Dark; "A History of the Modern World," two volumes, by Oscar Browning; "The Man of No Sorrows," by Coulson Kernahan; "High Road to Christ," by the Rev. Richard Roberts; "Evangelicalism: Has It a Future?" by R. C. Gilie; "Personal Power," by Keith Thomas; "Among the Heretics," by J. A. Packer, and "Social Studies," by Oliver C. Malvery and the Rev. J. Marchant.

Little, Brown & Co. have several new novels in their autumn list: "The Court of St. Simon," by Anthony Partridge; "The Gift of Abou Hassan," by Francis Perry Elliott; "All the World to Nothing," by Wyndham Martyn; "The White Blackbird," by Hudson Douglas; "Good Indian," by B. M. Bower; "A Little Book of Christmas," by John Kendrick Bangs; "A Cry in the Wilderness," by Mary E. Waller; "The Tempting of Tavernake," by E. Phillips Oppenheim, and "The Destroying Angel," by Louis Joseph Vance.—Illustrated books: "Romantic Days in the Early Republic," by Mary Caroline Crawford; "A Book of Hand-Woven Coverlets," by Eliza Calvert Hall; "Colonial Homes and Their Furnishings," by Mary H. Northend; "Historic Summer Haunts from Newport to Portland," by F. Lauriston Bullard; Jeffery Farnol's "The Broad Highway," with twenty-four full-page pictures in color by Charles E. Brock; "Switzerland in Sunshine and Snow," by Edward B. d'Auvergne; "Tramps Through Tyrol," by F. W. Stoddard; "The Cathedrals of England and Wales," by T. D. Atkinson; "Keats's Poems" and Kingsley's "Water Babies."—Juveniles: "Henley's American Captain," by Frank E. Channon; "The Fourth Down," by Leslie W.

Quirk; "Buddie at Gray Buttes Camp," by Anna Chapin Ray; "Dave Morrell's Battery," by Hallis Godfrey; "Donald Kirk, the Morning Record Copy-Boy," by Edward Mott Woolley; "The Fir-Tree Fairy Book," by Clifton Johnson; "Curiosity Kate," by Florence Bone; "The Bunnikins-Bunnies and the Moon King," by Edith B. Davidson; "Ned Brewster's Year in the Big Woods," by Chauncey J. Hawkins; "The Wonder Workers," by Mary H. Wade; "Cherry-Tree Children," by Mary Frances Blaisdell; "The Boy's Parkman," compiled by Louise S. Hasbrouck; "The Young Crusaders at Washington," by George P. Atwater; "Mother West Wind's Animal Friends," by Thornton W. Burgess; "When Christmas Came Too Early," by Mabel Fuller Blodgett; "Folk Tales of East and West," by John Harrington Cox; "Josefa in Spain" and "Donald in Scotland," by Etta B. MacDonald and Julia Dalrymple. "The English History Story-Book," by A. F. Blaisdell and F. K. Ball, and two "Children of History" books, by Mary S. Hancock.—Miscellaneous: "The Intimate Memoirs of Napoleon III," translated from the private diary of Baron d'Ambes; "Myths of the Modocs," by the late Jeremiah Curtin; "The Party Book," by Winnifred Fales and Mary H. Northend; "Modern Italian Literature," by Lacy Collison-Morley; a translation of Emile Ollivier's "The Franco-Prussian War and Its Hidden Causes"; "Woman in the Making of America," by H. Addington Bruce; "John Hancock, the Picturesque Patriot," by Lorenzo Sears; "In the Footsteps of Richard Cœur de Lion," by Maud M. Holbach; "A Polish Exile with Napoleon," by G. L. de St. M. Watson; "Lords and Ladies of the Italian Lakes," by Edgumbe Staley; "Penal Philosophy," by Gabriel Tarde; "A Short History of English Law," by Edward Jenks; "A History of Roman Law," by Andrew Stephenson; and English translations by F. C. de Sumichrast of Théophile Gautier's romances and travels.

The head of Windermere, the haunt of Wordsworth, comprising the meadowland between the mouth of the River Rotha and Waterhead, will be used for building purposes, unless a sum of £4,000 can soon be raised to purchase the site for the English nation. Two thousand four hundred pounds has already been contributed, the major part by residents of the locality, and we are asked to urge any Americans who are able to do so to help make up the remainder. Checks may be sent to Canon H. D. Rawnsley, honorable secretary to the National Trust, Crosthwaite Vicarage, Keswick, England.

"The Garden of Eden and Its Restoration," the opening article in the *Geographical Journal* for August, by Sir William Willcocks, is a description of the proposed irrigation works which will give to Mesopotamia a firm foundation for its future prosperity. Referring to the fact that Mehemet Ali proposed to the Sultan of his day to exchange Egypt for Babylonia, Sir William said that "England would make no bad financial bargain if she were to exchange Egypt for Babylonia." An interesting and encouraging account of Northern Nigeria is given by C. L. Temple, one of the small band of pioneers who set up an administration there some twelve years ago. One characteristic of the coun-

try is the innumerable races and tribes to be found in it. In one area of about 25,000 square miles sixty-four languages and dialects are spoken. Another is the industry of the natives, illustrated by the fact that from whatever point one approaches the town of Kano "he will travel for three days through country every inch of which is highly cultivated." The land revenue has increased in eight years from \$80,000 to \$2,300,000, and foreign-made trade spirits, which have wrought so much evil in Western Africa, are prohibited. Other subjects treated are the relations of kames and eskers, formations deposited by water from melted glacier-ice, by Prof. J. W. Gregory, and the distribution of early Bronze Age settlements in Britain, with sketch-maps and illustrations by O. G. S. Crawford.

The *National Geographical Magazine* for July opens with an account of some little-known parts of Panama by Henry Pittier. Its most interesting feature is the description, with many reproductions of photographs, of the three aboriginal tribes still in existence, who retain most of their ancient customs. Of the Chocoos he writes: "Never in our twenty-five years of tropical experience have we met with such sun-loving, bright, and trusting people, living nearest to nature, and ignoring the most elementary wiles of so-called civilization." The chief of the United States Forest Service, H. S. Graves, describes the methods adopted by the Government for fighting the forest fires, for 33 per cent. of which the railways are responsible. The importance of this work of reducing a loss which reaches about a million dollars annually is shown by the fact that the production of timber by growth is one-third less than the amount used. Among the preventive works of the Government in the national forests are numerous lookout stations, 10,000 miles of trails, above 5,000 miles of fire lines, and 7,000 miles of telephone lines.

H. A. L. Fisher's "Republican Tradition in Europe," published in 1911, and reviewed by us on September 7 of that year, has been brought out by Putnam's in a Students' Edition.

In a very readable biography of "William the Silent" (Baker & Taylor), J. C. Squire, late scholar of St. John's College, Cambridge, has made good use of the great statesman's published correspondence and of some of the English Calendars of State Papers; otherwise his dependence upon Motley, Ruth Putnam, and Frederic Harrison is almost complete. He tells his story in a lively, dramatic fashion, but seeks to impress his reader with William's greatness by an extravagant use of adjectives rather than by a simple statement of the facts upon which that greatness really rests.

Prof. E. J. Urwick, of King's College, London, in his "Philosophy of Social Progress" (Methuen), throws down the gauntlet to the sociologists by declaring that there cannot be, in any proper sense, a "science" of society, but only a philosophy of social development. In his view, the elements of social life are too numerous and complicated to admit of scientific synthesis; moreover, the power of man to determine, in considerable measure, his own action makes it impossible to formulate

laws as to what society, the aggregate of these innumerable free wills, will do or ought to do. From Professor Urwick's standpoint, the influence of environment in affecting social activity has been overworked. On the contrary, the conduct of society in any given case is likely to be the result of an appropriation, by an increasing number of persons, of ideas or examples originating with individuals. Particularly interesting is his view of the purposive character of social development, and his recognition of spiritual and religious forces as elements in progress. For loose generalizations and illogical conclusions the author has frank contempt, and his own contribution, while avowedly controversial, and not in all respects so novel or revolutionary as he apparently thinks, has a solid basis of clear thinking and pertinent illustration.

If the old fisherman in the twenty-first idyll of Theocritus had not dreamed that he caught a golden fish, it is possible that there would be to-day no occasion for such a book as Dr. Henry Marion Hall's on "Idylls of Fishermen: A History of the Literary Species" (Columbia University Press; Lemcke & Buechner). So definite was the impulse which came from the Sicilian. Despite the fact that fisherman's luck was a favorite topic with ancient writers, it required the artificial setting of an idyll before it could create a body of traditions sufficient for the making of a literary species. This was Theocritus's contribution. Virgil, oddly, left the type virtually untouched, yet exerted great influence upon it indirectly. For Sannazaro refashioned the details of Virgil's pastorals into the fisher mould of Theocritus. In his piscatory eclogues are lists of fishes corresponding to the Augustan's groupings of trees; men sing while they fish, so that the poor victims rise to listen; there are contests for prizes, etc.; in short, all the devices of the pretty fad into which the eclogue proper had developed. Through Italy, Spain, France, and England the fisher idyll ran a long and wide course. For a couple of centuries there was hardly a branch of literature into which it did not enter. The sonnet, the romance, the drama, the romantic epic sheltered it. In England Phineas Fletcher is found by Dr. Hall to be the most significant figure in this movement. Fletcher, it is interesting to note, made the same use of Spenser that Sannazaro had made of Virgil, adapting wherever the plan of his "Piscatorie Eclogues" permitted the substance and manner of the "Shepherd's Calendar." By this time it is evident that the fisher idyll had assumed an artificiality far removed from the only slightly exaggerated setting furnished by Theocritus. This gave trouble to its later votaries, and an effort was made to correct blunders by squaring the work with such an authentic treatise as Walton's "Compleat Angler." Further ramifications of the type are too complicated to be sketched here. A list of the chief English piscatories includes: Donne, Milton (in "Paradise Regained"), Gay, Moses Browne, William Thompson, Monk Lewis, Scott, and Keats. Dr. Johnson, as might be expected, had his say about this fashion. In the *Rambler* he objects to Sannazaro's eclogues because the sea presents less variety than the land, and be-

cause a sea poem for one dwelling inland will always remain as unintelligible as a chart.

Seven years ago the H. W. Wilson Co. of Minneapolis, Minn., began publishing a thin and unpretentious quarterly called *Library Work*, which provided an index and a brief digest of the more important articles appearing in current library periodicals. As the list of periodicals included was short and the period covered by each issue was brief, the material in each number was too scant to be of much service, and the publication received little encouragement from librarians. The work, however, was continued, gradually including a wider range of periodicals, and now the whole series of separate issues, with much added matter, cumulated and arranged in one straight alphabet, is published in a large octavo volume of 400 pages under the title "Library Work." It furnishes an entirely new and unique tool for reference in the field of library economy. With this tool in hand, the busy librarian can in a minute put his finger on every reference to any specific library topic or problem that has appeared during the past seven years in any and all of the twenty-six leading library periodicals in America, England, Scandinavia, Holland, Germany, Denmark, and Italy; and for about one-third of these references—and those the most important—he has in the index itself a summary or digest of their main points. There is in English only one other work of reference in its field to be compared with this—the comprehensive "Bibliography of Library Economy," compiled by H. G. T. Cannons and published in London in 1910 (Stanley, Russell & Co., 7s. 6d.). The latter has the advantage of including the whole period from 1876 to 1909, and of being arranged in both classified and alphabetical order. The former has the advantage of being two years nearer to date and of not merely pointing to, but in many cases providing, the material needed. For the librarian who wishes to be exhaustive, both indexes are needed, but for one who has access to only a limited number of library periodicals, "Library Work" is by far the more useful. With this cumulation, the quarterly issues are brought to an end, the work being taken over by the *Library Journal*, of which it will hereafter be a regular feature. In one important respect the volume deserves severe criticism, and that is the cheap and flimsy binding in which it is issued. In these days when librarians are working so persistently to raise the general standard of book-binding, it is inexcusable that one of their own professional tools should be supplied in this wretched form.

The proceedings of "The Robert Browning Centenary Celebration," at Westminster Abbey, May 7, 1912, are published in attractive pocket form with a portrait by the Houghton Mifflin Company. Professor Knight is editor for nine short contributions: The Oral Interpretation of Browning, by Bishop W. Boyd Carpenter; two commemorative poems by Canon Rawnsley; Browning on Failure, by Emily Hickey; Browning and Wordsworth on Intimations of Immortality, by Ernest Hartley Coleridge; Browning as a Letter Writer, by H. C. Minchin; Browning as I Knew Him, by William C. Kingsland; An Australian appreciation of Brown-

ing, by Prof. Henry Laurie; The Ring and the Book, by Dr. Hill. To these is added a report of the Robert Browning Settlement at Waltham, by the warden, F. Herbert Stead. It is easy to see that these brief addresses may have adequately served their immediate purpose, but one and all they share the literary dreariness that paradoxically the most robust of poets infallibly inspires in his interpreters. Yet doubtless the inner cult will unreservedly welcome this pious tribute to a great memory.

No one knows or loves Paris better than Georges Cain, curator of the Musée Carnavalet. Not long ago, Emile Faguet said of him, "He is the geographer of Paris. He knows all the houses in it, all the streets, the squares, the gardens. And he is the historian of Paris. Of each house, street, square, and garden he knows all the history, from the most remote times down to the other day." His book, "Byways of Paris" (Duffield), translated by Louise Seymour Houghton, like its numerous predecessors, bears out this statement. The curiosities to be found in its pages are as varied as they are interesting: the garret where Napoleon did not live; the Hôtel de Ville and the playground of revolutions in front of it; the Théâtre du Vaudeville, where "la Dame aux camélias" had its first night sixty years ago; the brook of Mémilmontant where Parisians shot ducks in times past, and which now runs underground beneath the Opéra; Balzac's retreat in the rue Raynouard, with one of those deep and shady gardens which give Passy an air of having grown up on a wooded countryside and of still preserving bits of it; the strange northwest slope of Montmartre, undiscovered of Americans who go with a devilish air to the Moulin Rouge. Faguet says a book of Georges Cain is good for people who do not love Paris (as if there were any); for those who do, it is even better, provided they brace themselves for a sharp attack of nostalgia.

The valuable part of the last "Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin" is that portion of the Appendix given over to "Historical Papers." This portion is more than two-thirds of the volume. The subjects range from such topics as "Recollections of a Pioneer Woman of La Crosse" and "A Wagon Journey from Ohio to Wisconsin in 1846," to the more pretentious sort indicated by the titles, "The Admission of the 'Omnibus' States, 1889-90," and "Some Aspects of Politics in the Middle West, 1860-72." The last-named paper is by Evarts Boutell Greene, Ph.D., and is an examination of Professor Dunning's thesis that the continuity of the Republican party since 1854 is doubtful, so far as it applies to the political situation in the Middle West during the dozen years following the election of Lincoln. Quotation from the concluding paragraph will best show the trend of the author's reasoning:

Having recently constructed a building at the University of Illinois, to be known as Lincoln Hall, we have been interested in preparing, after consultation with various persons throughout the State, a list of the Illinois men who, having been associated with Lincoln either in the conflict against slavery or in the work of preserving the Union, seemed especially to deserve conspicuous recognition. An effort was made to have the list representative so far as possible of different phases of political ac-

tion. The nine men finally selected for this purpose were: Douglas, Trumbull, Yates, Palmer, Logan, Lovejoy, Koerner, Davis, and Medill. Of these nine, seven were living in 1872. Of these seven survivors, not more than two were in that year identified with the same political party to which they belonged in 1860. Of the six men living in 1872, who were Republicans in 1860, four were associated with the Liberal Republican movement, and none of the four was ever restored to regular standing in the Republican party. Of the two men who were Democrats in 1860, the one survivor in 1872 was an intensely partisan leader of the Republican party.

The collection is one more piece of evidence of the deep and intelligent interest that the West is taking in its past.

E. L. Miron, in "The Derelict Duchess" (Brentano's), has done his best to give substance to the shadowy figure of Charlotte d'Albret, Duchesse de Valentinois, the abandoned wife of Cesare Borgia. But for all his efforts, all his painstaking researches and analyses of ancient inventaires, and, we may add, all his fanciful evocations and flights of sentimental sympathy, this unhappy lady remains but a pallid portrayal. Whether she wished to marry Cesare or whether she married him against her will, what she did or said, how she looked—all this is uncertain. We know only that she was referred to by contemporaries as "one of the loveliest girls of France"; that after her separation from her husband she made sundry unsuccessful efforts to join him in Italy; and that after his downfall she pleaded his cause, with equal lack of success, before King Louis, who was thoroughly out of conceit with his old ally. The omissions of the "master-makers of history" are redressed by the author in a spirit of tender piety. He pictures his heroine first in the Château de Nérac, the home of her coarse-souled and intriguing father, Alain le Grand, the Sire d'Albret, scion of a great Gascon house; then among the ladies-in-waiting of Anne de Bretagne, twice Queen of France, who helped arrange Charlotte's marriage with Cesare Borgia when the originally projected marriage with that other Charlotte, de Tarente, fell through; and then, finally, we see her, after her brief married life with her husband, which seems to have been happy, at Issoudun, immured in her manor of La Motte Feuilly, where she awaited the deliverance which never came. Having mated her to Cesare, the King of France apparently held her as a hostage for his doubtful ally in the ill-placed hope that the latter might thereby be kept faithfully to his engagements. But for the Italian, his French marriage was but the merest incident. Although his wife bore him a daughter, Louise, Cesare never saw her again after leaving France. In 1514, six years after his death, she too died, and was buried, according to the instructions in her last will and testament, in the chapel of the Convent of the Annonciades at Bourges, beside her friend, Jeanne de Valois, the uncrowned Queen of Louis XII. But her heart was removed from her body and placed in the Church of La Motte Feuilly. Here, later, at the order of her daughter, Mme. de la Tremoille, was erected a beautiful monument, the work of Claustra, with the effigy of the Duchesse in alabaster. This was savagely mutilated during the Revolution, but has since been restored.

Science

Dr. Stephen Smith is bringing out, through Frank Allaben, New York, "The City that Was," a treatise on sanitation in New York city in 1864, and "Who Is Insane?"

The House of Cassell numbers among its forthcoming autumn publications several science books: "Electricity in the Service of Man," two volumes, by R. M. Walsley; "Wireless Telegraphy," by B. E. Jones; "Reinforced Concrete," the same; "Practical Conjuring Up to Date," the same; "Motor Cars and Their Story," by F. A. Talbot; "The Complete Gardener," by H. H. Thomas; "Indoor Gardening," the same; "Wild Flowers as They Grow," fourth series, and "Spiderland," by R. A. Ellis.

Readers need not fear that the new and enlarged edition of "The Field-Book of American Wild Flowers" (Putnam), by F. Schuyler Mathews, has outgrown its convenience as a handbook. It is still fitted to the side-pocket and adapted to ready use in excursions. Severe tests applied to the key leading to the families shows that a great deal of labor has been bestowed upon it, in order to make it trustworthy and simple even for beginners. The engravings, which aim to discriminate puzzling species, are well drawn, and the colored plates also are excellent. Besides, Mr. Mathews gives much first-hand information concerning the relations of insects to our common plants.

"Practical Poultry Keeping," by R. B. Sando, and "Profitable Breeds of Poultry," by Arthur S. Wheeler, two of the Outing Handbook series, give in a condensed and elementary form many axiomatic rules of poultry culture. Mr. Sando has kept on safe ground, and the poultryman who has no other manual on his shelves will find here nothing to lead him astray, and not much that he does not know already. Although the Census Bureau has tabulated returns from 5,655,764 farms which raised poultry during 1909, and although there are as many more town and city amateurs, it is inconceivable that there should be further demand for these trite and elementary manuals, which offer nothing but the reiteration of principles as well-known as the Ten Commandments—and perhaps as often violated. A. S. Wheeler writes in a brisk and assertive style, and his views will attract attention from the fact that he is one of very few writers on poultry topics who come out from behind the old legend, "All breeds are good, and none is better than the others." His enthusiasm for the Rhode Island Red is very great, but he well defends it, and his opinion of the Leghorns is also sustained by the facts. His manual makes good reading.

The purpose of "Earth Features and Their Meaning" (Macmillan), by Prof. W. H. Hobbs, is primarily to furnish a readable work on miscellaneous topics of modern geology and physical geography. In his preface the author lays stress on the fact that the book is a series of readings to stimulate the traveller to appreciate the landscape wherever he may go. A special emphasis is laid upon earthquakes, volcanoes, the work of water, desert processes, and glaciers. There is some mention of the

mechanism of folding, but virtually no attention whatever has been given to the dynamics of intrusive magma, such as granite. We note in the only reference made to plutonic intrusion a very singular suggestion and a very misleading one, if the author wishes his book to convey generally accepted doctrine. He asserts that "no igneous rock type is known which could be formed by the fusion of any of the carbonate rocks," and then, after showing that the chemical composition of shale resembles that of average igneous rock, he concludes, "This close resemblance is probably of deep significance, for the reason that shales and slates are structurally the weakest of all rocks, and for the further reason that they rather generally directly underlie the carbonate rocks, which are by contrast the strongest. For these reasons, shales and slates are the only rocks which are likely to be fused by relief from load through the formation of anticlinal arches within the earth's zone of flow. If this view is well founded, lavas and other igneous rocks are in large part fused argillaceous sediments, formed in connection with the process of folding." The reviewer would respectfully insist that this view is not well founded. That the composition of shale should resemble that of average igneous rock is not remarkable, as shale is the sedimentary product of erosion of igneous rocks, and represents the finest material of all minerals derived therefrom. Shale has not been concentrated as has sandstone, for instance, which consists almost wholly of quartz.

The book is noteworthy for the importance given to the experimental method in geology, for good reading references at the end of each chapter, for an unusually good analysis of weathering, and the surface process of dry regions, such as dune accumulations in the deserts, and for original treatment of glaciation. The work of organic life and the processes of the oceans are almost wholly omitted.

"La Sismologie moderne" (Paris: A. Colin—300 pages, 46 figures in text, 16 plates, 2 maps—4 francs), by F. de Montessus de Ballore, is a much-needed exposition in popular form of the author's large special works on seismological geography and seismological science. It explains with scientific precision, but for the general reader the periodic character of earthquake movements, their measurable elements, and the working of the instruments invented for their measurement; the varying phenomena; the geography of earthquakes and volcanoes; effects and relations of earthquakes with other phenomena; the consequent evolution of the earth's surface relief, and its connection with the internal constitution of our globe; and what man can do to meet the danger of earthquakes, particularly in his buildings. There is a short bibliography of principal works in the different languages, all of recent date like seismological study itself. The figures and maps are excellently chosen to make clear what has become in our own time a necessary branch of physical science, thanks to perfected means of exact observation.

The death is reported from Constance, Baden, at the age of eighty-one of the Rev. Johann Martin Schleyer, the German priest who invented Volapük, the first international language. It was based on English

and contained many words borrowed from the Romance languages and from Latin. Schleyer published his first prospectus in 1879. In 1885 Volapük had been taken up in France. The Volapük Academy for the study of the language was founded in 1887, and to the third Volapük Congress, which met in Paris in 1889, 283 societies sent delegates, representing more than a million students. Shortly after this Congress, Schleyer and the members of the Academy divided over an effort to simplify the grammar and vocabulary for commercial use, and Volapük was superseded by other artificial languages.

Music

Critical and Historical Essays. By Edward MacDowell. Boston: Arthur P. Schmidt.

Edward MacDowell is now universally regarded as America's foremost composer. As a boy he exhibited such remarkable skill in the use of pencil and brush that a prominent Parisian artist, President of the Académie des Beaux Arts, offered to give him a free training, which offer it is most fortunate that he declined, for this country has had more great painters than creative musicians. A few years before his death appeared a volume of his poems, most of them written to be set to music by himself; and now, several years after his death, we have in book form some of the lectures which he delivered as professor of music in Columbia University. They are provided with a preface by the editor of the *Musician*, W. J. Baltzell, who explains why there were not more of these lectures to print. MacDowell conducted two courses, one of which was intended to give a general idea of music from its historical and æsthetic side, while the other was concerned with the development of musical forms, piano music, modern orchestration, impressionism, and the relation of music to the other arts. Unfortunately only a small part of the lectures in each course were fully written out. These he read from a manuscript, but the others were given from notes and illustrated by him on the piano. However, enough of them were worked out to make it possible to put together a volume which gives a clear and vivid view of the evolution and the history of music in their main outlines.

One cannot but regret that MacDowell ever accepted the Columbia professorship. There was little understanding of or sympathy with his aims and ideals on the part of the faculty, and while some of his pupils have since made names for themselves, most of those who had the privilege of attending his lectures were little more than "barbarians," as he characterized the university students collectively, speaking from the æsthetic point of view. It was not

like teaching at a conservatory, where all the students have a practical knowledge of music. Doubtless the very fact that not a few of his hearers at the University had no such training impelled him to strive for that lucidity of explanation which will agreeably impress every reader of his book. What one regrets is that he should have ever taken the time to prepare these lectures. They are on the whole not much better than a similar set of lectures that might have been prepared by half a dozen musical journalists in the country. But no one in the country can give to the world the inspired songs or piano or orchestral pieces which he might have composed during the months it must have taken him to collect and digest the material for these lectures. Another set of "Eight Songs" or of "Woodland Sketches" would have been of infinitely greater value to the world than this volume of Columbia lectures.

Yet it is in itself a good book, and interesting; a book which may be cordially commended to the attention of all those who are enamored of MacDowell's music. For, beside much that is almost inevitably conventional in the discussion of ancient, mediæval, and modern music, of scales, counterpoint, folksongs, Troubadours, sonatas, operas, and so on, there is also a good deal of the precious individuality of MacDowell's mind. The keynote of his attitude as an historian and critic is struck in these words:

In my belief, I am no respecter of the written word, that is to say, the mere fact that a statement is made by a well-known man, is printed in a well-known work, or is endorsed by many prominent names, means nothing to me if the thing itself is available for examination.

This independent attitude is exemplified again and again in these pages. The frank and sincere American is indignant at the antics of the European historians who see nothing of the flaws in some modern composers and none at all in some of the old masters. Mozart's sonatas for the piano, for instance, are habitually treated as sublime. Though they abound in bare runs and unmeaning passages, students are informed that they do not contain one note of mere filigree work. In reality "Mozart's sonatas are compositions entirely unworthy of the author of the 'Magic Flute,' or of any composer with pretensions to anything beyond mediocrity. They are written in a style of flashy harpsichord virtuosity such as Liszt never descended to, even in those of his works at which so many persons are accustomed to sneer." The modern style of ornament, as used by Chopin and Liszt, is distinctly an Oriental trait, and MacDowell does not agree with Sir Hubert Parry and others that the Moors in Spain, for example, covered poverty of thought beneath superficial ingenuity of

design. The Alhambra outdoes in "passage work," in virtuoso arabesques, "all that an army of Liszts could do in piano literature; and yet the Arabs were the saviors of science, and promoted the greatest learning and depth of thought known in Europe in their time." As for Liszt, "there is such an astounding wealth of poetry and deep feeling beneath his somewhat 'flashy,' bombastic trick of speech he inherited, that the true lover of music can no more allow his feelings to be led astray by such externals than one would judge a man's mind by the cut of his coat or the hat he wears."

Frankness is what MacDowell missed in most of the books on musical history and criticism, as in the attitude towards art in general. People do not dare, he says, to admire the London Law Courts; all things must be measured by the straight lines of Grecian architecture. "Let us have frankness, and if we have no feelings on a subject, let us remain silent rather than echo that drone in the hive of modern thought, the 'authority in art.'" He is indignant with the musical historians for perpetually parroting the ridiculous assertion that the increasing and decreasing of a tone in loudness as an element of musical expression was first discovered at Mannheim, about 1760, whereas Plutarch already referred to this thing. "When we read in Josephus," he says in another chapter, "that Solomon had 200,000 singers, 40,000 harpers, 40,000 sistrum players, and 200,000 trumpeters, we simply do not believe it." He does not join in the admiration of the Mastersingers; they were mainly valuable, in his opinion, for having furnished Wagner a subject for his wonderful opera. Hans Sachs was perhaps the only one of them whose melodies show anything but the flattest mediocrity.

In all these "heresies" one cannot but agree with MacDowell as against the historians. There are other heretical remarks, such as the statement that some of the sonatas of Beethoven, including the so-called "Moonlight," are "sonatas in name only"—an assertion which to some will seem the more audacious as on a previous page (27) the author had poked fun at the critics who said of Chopin that he was "weak in sonata form." While others descant on the rhythmic wonders of Richard Strauss, MacDowell calls attention to what Johann Strauss did by means of "a marvellous use of counterrhythms, thus infusing into the dance a simulation of intellectuality." On the important influence of the dance in shaping music he also dwells. Perhaps the most original and important of his pages are those devoted to explaining the difference between folk song and nationalism in music. Some of his remarks on Wagner's stage art show why he himself never

felt inspired to write an opera. These remarks, and those which betray his inability to appreciate the fascination of Chinese and Siamese music, indicate limitations in his otherwise remarkable equipment for sympathetic appreciation and discriminating criticism.

Stokes, next month, will add several volumes to the Masterpieces of Music series: "Beethoven" and "Wagner," by Fred Corder; "Brahms," by Sir Charles Stanford; "Schumann," by Landon Ronald; "Schubert," by George H. Clutsam, and "Mendelssohn," by Sir F. H. Cowen.

It is often contended that, contrary to the prevailing belief, violins made today are just as good as those of the old Italians. A few weeks ago a number of music lovers and experts were invited in Paris to help test this question. In a darkened room several violins were played in succession. They were simply numbered, and the hearers then gave their opinions as to their comparative merits. Almost unanimously, the first prize was assigned to a Belgian instrument made this year. A French violin made in 1911 got the second prize. An old Stradivarius, valued at \$12,000, had to be content with third place.

London is evidently not yet ready to give up the operas of Puccini even if Andreas Dippel found he could get along without them in Chicago and Philadelphia. During the season at Covent Garden, which closed on July 29, three of Puccini's operas were in the lead in the number of performances. "La Bohème" was sung seven times, "Tosca" and "Madama Butterfly" each six times. His "Girl of the Golden West," however, did not get more than three hearings. The most important novelty of the season, Wolf-Ferrari's "Jewels of the Madonna," was given six times. Verdi's "Aida" and Leoncavallo's "Pagliacci" had each five performances. An important revival was Meyerbeer's "Les Huguenots," which was sung four times; four was also the figure for "Louise" and for "Rigoletto." "Carmen," "The Secret of Suzanna," "Samson et Dalila," and "Traviata" were each heard three times. The four operas of Wagner's Nibelung cycle were twice repeated, and two was the figure also for "The Barber of Seville," "Manon Lescaut" (another of Puccini's operas), which is far less popular than Massenet's "Manon." "Tristan and Isolde" was also sung twice; and so was "Conchita." Altogether, ninety-five performances were given of twenty-two operas.

Probably the biggest concert enterprise in the world is Sir Henry Wood's series of annual promenade concerts in Queen's Hall, London. No fewer than 500 numbers will be sung or played the coming season. Of these, 300 are purely orchestral, 60 others are instrumental, and 120 vocal. As in previous years, the Monday evenings are to be devoted to Wagner, the Friday evenings to Beethoven. Five of the concerts will be conducted by George Henschel.

Violoncello players often complain that there are so few pieces for them. But U. Schott's Söhne of Mayence alone publish a Cello Bibliothek of no fewer than sixty-five sonatas, with pianoforte. They are edited by Piatti, de Swert, Schroeder, and

Moffat. The names of not a few of the composers, it must be admitted, are not widely known.

A book of 430 pages on Beethoven's ninth symphony has just appeared in Leipzig. The author, Heinrich Schenker, makes critical use of all previous treatises on this great work, written by Grove, Weingartner, Riemann, Kretzschmar, Nottbohm, and others.

Besides the "Wegweiser" recently referred to in this column, two other Bayreuth guides have appeared this summer. One of them, entitled "Bayreuth, 1912," is in German only; of the other, "Bayreuther Taschenbuch," there are also English and French editions. Still another of these guides for Wagnerites is entitled "München, 1912."

Germany reports a great shortage in military band players. More than a thousand are wanted—horn-players, cornetists, clarinet and oboe players, etc. A recent number of the *Deutsche Militärmusiker-Zeitung* contained eight pages of advertisements calling for extra men. The shortage is attributed to the fact that players in military bands have fewer opportunities than those in private bands for extra jobs.

Once more the Pergola Theatre of Florence is to be rebuilt. It was originally erected in 1652, and was the property of a society of aristocrats. In 1775 it was torn down and replaced by a building made of more substantial material than wood. It then had 2,000 seats, besides 114 boxes, and gradually became the leading opera house of Italy. In it many first performances were given of operas by Puccini (the rival of Gluck), Paisiello, Cimarosa, Cherubini, Donizetti, Rossini, Verdi, and many others.

The Norwegian city of Bergen, the birthplace of Edward Grieg, also has a theatre which is to be torn down. The present plan is to put in its place an industrial building, but an effort is being made to thwart this and carry out the project of making the new building a hall for concerts and national festivities. This would be appropriate, because the old theatre, known as the National Stage, has played a prominently patriotic rôle in the literary history of Norway, the country of Ibsen, Bjørnson, and Heiberg. It was built, with money earned chiefly in America, by the great violinist, Ole Bull, with the object of benefiting the national aspect of Norwegian art. Ibsen did much to help along the movement. Dissatisfied with the situation in Christiania, he had several of his plays produced first in Bergen.

Art

Art books in Stokes's list include: "The Tapestry Book," by Helen Churchill Candee; "Epochs of Chinese and Japanese Art," by Ernest F. Fenollosa; several volumes in the Great Engravers series; "Antiques and Curios" (House Decoration series); "Chippendale, Hepplewhite, and Sheraton," and "American Types," by Clarence F. Underwood.

Seven essays, entitled respectively "A Venetian Day," "The Italian Renaissance," "Rural England," "French and English

Churches," "The Five Orders of Architecture," "On the Design of Houses," and "By the Sea"—bound up with forty-five pencil sketches—make up "An Architect's Sketch Book" (Houghton Mifflin), by Robert Swain Peabody. One of the oldest and most distinguished of Boston architects, Mr. Peabody has in these seven essays (several of which have previously appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly*) succeeded in conveying some sound and excellent teaching in a style whose easy flow is as far as possible from suggesting the lecture-room or the didactic discourse. The forty-five sketches are of no great importance architecturally, though marked by much charm of handling and crispness and delicacy of touch. In these days of photographs, half-tone prints, and architectural monographs, the *croquis de voyage* has lost its old-time importance as a record of facts. The architect's sketches, save as the making of them quickens his powers of observation and makes more precise his knowledge and memory of a building, are of value chiefly as records of impressions and revelations of the sketcher's taste and skill. Mr. Peabody's book will be valued most by his friends, fellow architects, and former pupils and draftsmen, as a reflection and expression of his own genial personality, his well-informed mind, and broad and fine taste; but it is a good book to put into the hands of any layman or student.

From the Clarendon Press we have received a "Catalogue of Portraits in the Possession of the University, Colleges, City, and County of Oxford," compiled by Mrs. Reginald Lane Poole. Volume I comprises the portraits owned by the University, town, and county. Subsequent volumes will take up the untitled ground of the college collections. The present volume contains 770 entries, in both the graphic and plastic arts, and more than 70 illustrations. The historical and iconographical notes have been carefully done, and there is a considerable contribution of new identifications and attributions. It all represents an amount of labor which those who have never attempted to unravel a portrait tradition can hardly imagine. Since Oxford University possesses few portraits by great masters the interest of the present work is strictly iconographical. Yet there could be no worthier form of antiquarian endeavor than to recover the actual similitudes of the great folk of older days. In fact, portrait iconography is a science only at its beginnings which might well claim the attention of many now devoted to less important fields of art. It is probable that Mrs. Poole's explorations among the colleges may reveal some fine portraits which escaped the notable exhibitions of 1904-5-6.

The Art Institute of Chicago calls attention to important special exhibitions now to be seen in its galleries: A loan collection from Germany of modern German applied arts; collections of paintings, by Jonas Lie and by Charles Morris Young; paintings from the collection of Henry C. Lytton, of Chicago. These collections will remain on view until September 15.

It is feared that the new scheme for bringing the proposed Ostia Railway into Rome will do considerable damage to the buried remains of the Circus Maximus, which, it had been hoped, would some day have been excavated. The present plan is

to substitute for the previous scheme of two tubes under the Palatine and Capitol a tunnel across the old Vicus Tuscus. This would also prevent the exploration of the Lupercal.

Commodatore Boni has been continuing his excavations on the Palatine. In the course of them he has found a number of votive offerings, including an admirable representation of a camel. The latter was found at a considerable depth, and is held to confirm the accuracy of Plutarch's statement in his Life of Lucullus that camels were known to the Romans before the time of Scaurus. There have also come to light a marble head of a woman; a piece of gilt stucco from the dining room of Domitian; some fragments of mother-of-pearl, and a number of styli for writing. A splendid piece of pavement found some months ago Commodatore Boni considers to possess great historical as well as artistic value, as proving that the so-called *opus Alexandrinum* existed long before the time of Alexander Severus, in fact probably as early as Nero.

Excavations made in the Forum of Nerva, in Rome, have led to the discovery of the base of the western of the two standing columns, the so-called Colonnacce, the only remnants of the portico of the famous temple of Minerva. These columns had long remained half-buried in the ground; the total depth of the western column below the surface was shown to be no less than sixteen feet four inches. Other excavations are being carried on at the foot of the celebrated Torre delle Milizie, commonly known as the "Tower of Nero," though it was not erected till about the year 1200. It has now been shown, however, that this mediæval tower rests partly upon ancient Roman ruins and partly upon an ancient paved street.

Finance

EVIDENCES OF BETTER TIMES.

There are several directions from which, at a time when people are discussing the probability or improbability of nation-wide trade revival, evidence pointing the one way or the other is to be expected. The state of the steel and iron trade, which in a certain sense underlies all other industries, is one. Increase or decrease in the amount of money changing hands in general business (which is shown by the total volume of checks drawn on the country's banks) is another. Railway earnings, in which the movement of merchandise from city to city is reflected, are still another. The course of prices on the Stock Exchange has similar significance. All of these indications of prosperity or depression, as the case may be, have pointed an unfavorable inference during the past two years. Since it is in the early autumn that the trend of industry and finance is apt to define itself, an examination of these various weather-signs is now in point.

The course of events in the steel and

iron trade has already become familiar. Business in that industry, according to the *Iron Age*, "has not been as active as at present since the early part of 1907." In the total money volume, checks drawn last week on all of the country's banks, reported through the various clearing-houses, indicated a 14 per cent. expansion over 1911. Detailed returns show that in the trans-Missouri West, where weekly totals have until lately lagged far behind last year's, the volume of check exchanges is now running 20 per cent. above 1911, and is exceeding all previous records for the period. The great Western railway systems have begun to report their earnings for July, when the first of the great crops of 1912 were starting for the market. Of these, the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé, whose net earnings in the twelve preceding months, despite nearly 300 miles' extension of its lines, fell a million dollars below the year before, reports for July a gross revenue \$938,000 ahead of 1911 and net receipts larger by \$509,000. Last Saturday's fortnightly statement of idle railway cars in the United States showed 11,500 decrease since the last report. The present total of 43,000 side-tracked cars is nearly 60 per cent. below this date in 1911 and is 80 per cent. short of the figure reported even in 1909. Furthermore, it is well known to the railway world that even the relatively small present number of idle freight cars represents largely equipment massed at harvest-distributing points, for instant use when the spring wheat crop begins to move.

The Stock Exchange movement has been to most people less illuminating. It is true that, during August, fifty stocks have touched at New York the highest price of the year, and that twenty-nine of these "new high records" were achieved last week. But a "high price for the year" is a very relative expression. Two questions will naturally be asked about it. The first is, whether it represents a large advance over the lowest of 1912, or a small advance. The second is, how do the "new high levels" compare with the top prices of other preceding years?

From the low prices of 1912—mostly touched in February—the advances have been very considerable. They have run as high as the 14½-point rise in Union Pacific, the 16½ points in Steel, the 20 points in Louisville, the 25 in Reading, and the 28½ in Amalgamated Copper. Out of the thirteen leading stocks, none has scored less of a gain than 8 points. But, on the other hand, only five of those stocks have as yet in 1912 reached the highest prices of the summer of 1911, and only one has touched the top level scored in the summer of 1909 or the first weeks of 1910. For exactly one-half of the above-named

stocks, moreover, the top prices reached in 1906 or the few preceding years were well above those even of 1909. Was the actual state of prosperity, then, and the outlook for its continuance, greater in August, 1906, and in September, 1909, than it is at the end of August, 1912? Or are Stock Exchange prices relatively lower now, merely because of other and adverse influences which are present in 1912, but were not in 1909 or 1906?

The question is more pertinent, in view of the fact that, during the past three or four weeks, while all the other "industrial barometers" have been giving out positive forecast regarding conditions of prosperity, the Stock Exchange has stood still. Last week, for instance, total sales on the New York Exchange were less than the previous week's by 27 per cent., smaller by 36 per cent. than in the corresponding week of 1911, and rather generally ending in moderate net declines from the previous week.

Now, markets from which the capacity of motion seemed to have disappeared, and in which the narrow backward and forward swing of prices was the mere shadow and pretence of activity, have by no means been unfamiliar to the Wall Street of the past three years. When nothing is happening to alter the *status quo*, and when, so far as any one can see, the situation to-morrow, next week, or next month, will be exactly the same as it is to-day, a motionless stock market is at least entirely logical. But this explanation is as far as possible from fitting the market's action, or rather its inaction, under lately prevailing circumstances.

All the authentic news which has been coming to hand has borne evidence that the industrial situation, especially in this country, was changing radically. The disposition of American markets and business communities to exaggerate the favorable points in a revival of industry is familiar enough; but in this case we have had undisputed facts, whose natural influence, when measured by the criterion of all previous periods of the kind, was certain to be far-reaching. To the minds of some observers, even those of conservatism and experience, this country had reached a perfectly familiar stage in the economic cycle, which warranted expectation of much better times.

We had passed through the first after-panic liquidation of finance and industry; through the period of illusive and premature recovery, of secondary and severe reaction, of renewed liquidation. We had traversed the long stretch of despondent inertia, cautious readjustment of credits, replacing of troublesome international debt with handsome foreign credits, and compulsory economy in business. Instead of talking of the boom which was certain to be re-

sumed to-morrow or next month, our financiers and men of affairs had begun to discuss the "boom period" as a half-forgotten tradition which no one expected to see again in our day. This has usually, in the past, marked the intermediate period which really ended the chapter of depression, and which indicated that normal recovery was at hand. At precisely that juncture, as has so often occurred on similar occasions in our history, nature showered her bounty with unexpected profusion on the United States.

Now, analogies of this sort are never sure enough to warrant the offhand inference that another trade boom of the old-fashioned sort is immediately ahead of us. In some of its essential particulars, every situation of the sort is different from any that has preceded it. But the fact of importance is that at least a real and decided change in conditions is in sight, to which financial markets make no visible response except by remaining idle. Judging the stock market by its movement of the past few weeks, Wall Street is still in doubt as to which way the wind is blowing.

The reason why it may be expected, with some show of reason, that this apathy will at least be in some measure shaken off, as we enter the early autumn, is that events rather than general conditions will begin to dominate financial sentiment. This ordinarily means that markets are forced at least to declare themselves as regards their actual tendency. We shall very soon know—if that was necessary—whether our later crops are to fulfil all the cheerful predictions of a month ago, or are to have their prospects slightly impaired. On the second business day of Sep-

tember, we shall be favored with an indication of extraordinary interest regarding the actual trend of Presidential politics. If the state of the money market is to be a hindrance to financial plans, we are likely to learn it early in September, and if nothing of moment develops in that quarter by that time, it will be a fair assumption that the money situation will not be disturbing during the autumn.

If the Stock Exchange has merely been waiting to make up its mind on such considerations, it will at least have the opportunity to do so then. Thus far, the singular and unusual aspect of the case has been that, with the cards pretty much all on the table, even the alert mind of the Wall Street fraternity has apparently been unable to satisfy itself as to the course of the game. And the odd part of that hesitation is that it is exactly the state of mind which people in general expect to regulate, in their own case, by watching for Wall Street's clear expression of opinion.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Ansell, Mary. *The Happy Garden*. Cassell. \$2 net.
 Barnes, Earl. *Woman in Modern Society*. Huebsch. \$1.25 net.
 Baum, L. Frank. *Sky Island*. Chicago: Reilly & Britton. \$1.25.
 Burnet, Etienne. *Microbes and Toxins*. Putnam. \$2 net.
 Connor, R. D. W., and Poe, C. *Life and Speeches of Charles B. Aycock*. Doubleday, Page.
 Costantini, Anna. *The Gulf Between: A Novel*. Philadelphia: Winston Co. \$1.20 net.
 Daniels, E. D. *Latin Drill and Composition*. Boston: Heath.
 Dendy, Arthur. *Outlines of Evolutionary Biology*. D. Appleton.
 Futelle, Jacques. *My Lady's Garter*. Chicago: Rand, McNally. \$1.35 net.
 Gratacap, L. P. *A Popular Guide to Minerals*. Van Nostrand. \$3 net.

- Harrison, J. E. Thomas: *A Study of the Social Origins of Greek Religion*. Putnam. \$5 net.
 Herford, R. T. *Pharisaism, Its Aim and Its Method*. Putnam. \$1.50 net.
 Hoskin, A. J. *The Business of Mining*. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
 Hughes, Rupert. *Miss 318 and Mr. 37*. Revell. 75 cents net.
 Herz, Max. *New Zealand*. Duffield.
 Kinsley, W. W. *Was Christ Divine?* Boston: Sherman, French. \$1 net.
 Marshall, Mrs. Julian. *Handel*. New edition. Scribner.
 Mims, S. L. *Colbert's West India Policy*. Frowde. \$2 net.
 Paine, R. D. *Campus Days; The Dragon and the Cross*. Scribner. \$1.50; \$1.25.
 Parliamentary Papers, 1901 to 1910. London: King & Son.
 Produce Exchange Report, from July 1, 1911, to July 1, 1912.
 Redmond, John. *The Home Rule Bill*. Cassell.
 Reports of the Department of Labor, for the year ended September 30, 1910. Albany, N. Y.: State Department.
 Report of the Department of Education for 1909-1910. Tokio, Japan.
 Robertson, J. G. *Outlines of the History of German Literature*. Putnam. \$3.50 net.
 Rogers, R. W. *The Recovery of the Ancient Orient*. Eaton & Mains. 25 cents net.
 Royal Historical Society Publications, Vols. XX, XXI. *John of Gaunt's Register*, edited by S. Armitage-Smith, Vols. I and II. London: The Society.
 Royal Society of London. Third edition, revised. Frowde.
 Sedgwick, A. G. *The Democratic Mistake: Godkin Lectures of 1909*. Scribner. \$1 net.
 Semon, Richard. *Das Problem der Vererbung "erworbener Eigenschaften"*. Leipzig: Wilhelm Engelmann.
 Shakespeare's Richard the Second. Edited with introduction by Henry Newbolt. Frowde.
 Smith, F. H. *The Arm-Chair at the Inn*. Scribner. \$1.30 net.
 Steiner, Rudolf. *The Gates of Knowledge*. Putnam. \$1.25 net.
 Trevelyan, G. M. *The Poetry and Philosophy of George Meredith*. Scribner. \$1.
 Ullin, E. L. *Dancing, Ancient and Modern*. D. Appleton.
 Venable, Emerson. *The Hamlet Problem and Its Solution*. Cincinnati: Stewart & Kidd. \$1 net.
 Walpole, Hugh. *The Prelude to Adventure*. Century. \$1.20 net.
 Wilson, H. *Silverwork and Jewelry*. D. Appleton. \$2 net.

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